The Nation.

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The Week.

The assurance that Oregon will send another gold-standard man to the Senate next January encourages the hope that the Republican Senators committed to that policy may constitute a majority of the upper branch in the Fifty-sixth Congress. One seat now occupied by a Democrat, that of Gorman, will be turned over to a Gold Republican next March, through the election of McComas by the Maryland Legislature last winter. Another Democrat, Mitchell of Wisconsin, is sure of a Republican successor, who will be sound on the financial issue. The chances must certainly be considered more than even that similar changes will occur in the cases of Murphy of New York, Smith of New Jersey, Turpee of Indiana, and White of California, all of whom belong to the class whose terms will expire next spring. Leaving out of the account Bill Chandler, who "wobbles" more or less, there are thirty-seven gold-standard Republicans whose terms last through the next Congress or who are sure to be succeeded by men of the same mind. Maryland and Oregon already assure two more, and Wisconsin is as certain to send another as though the election had already been held, bringing the total up to forty, which would rise to forty-four with Republican victories in the four generally close States of New York, New Jersey, Indiana, and California. If Nebraska could be added to the list and send a gold-standard man to succeed the Populist Allen, the casting vote of the Vice-President would give that side a majority, even if Chandler should be eccentric enough to go the other way. If the elections next November shall give the Republicans the House by a large majority, there is a good prospect that they may control the next Senate also.

Not having been able to get their own way about coining the seigniorage, the silver Senators are consoling themselves by denouncing Secretary Gage for having recognized the probability of the Government's needing money to carry on the war. The Secretary, it seems, had been so presumptuous as to contemplate the passage of an act providing for an issue of bonds and the application of stamps to the millions of papers used in ordinary business. This act, it need hardly be said, was certain to go into effect at once; nevertheless, the Secretary of the Treasury, according to the views of the silverites, ought to have calmly ignored all probabilities, and not lifted a finger to make preparations for carrying it out. On the same principle the Army and Navy Departments ought to have abstained from all military preparations until the actual declaration of war by Congress. We do not know what preparations the Secretary of the Treasury may have made, but we venture to say both that he has exercised the utmost forethought and that the demand for internal-revenue stamps will be so sudden and so great that all his forethought will be shown to have been necessary. He is to be congratulated on the enemies he has made, and the press of the country can do him and the cause of intelligent government no better service than by giving the widest publicity to such criticisms as those of Senators Jones and Wolcott.

A correspondent writes to us that Senator Tillman, the Populist pitchfork Senator from South Carolina, had a protectionist motive for proposing the duty of 10 cents per pound on tea. Tillman has a constituent, the writer says, at Summerville, S. C., who cultivates tea and produces two or three thousand pounds per year at three times the cost of the imported article of equal grade. This constituent has always clamored for protection, and now he is likely to get it by means of a tax on the 90,000,000 pounds consumed in the United States. This is the only satisfactory explanation that has been offered for Tillman's motive and for the support he received from the Democrats in the Senate. The conference committee on the revenue bill has accepted the duty on tea, and it will form a part of the complete measure. Its productiveness in the way of revenue and the present needs of the Government make this clause too attractive to be thrown away when presented as a Populist-Democratic measure.

It is refreshing to observe that the demagogues are "getting left" in the war which they were so anxious to bring about. The Masons and Thurstons and Gallingers in the Republican party find nobody ready any longer to listen to their rant, while even the Forakers see how absurd the course of events has rendered their clamor of two months ago for recognition of the Cuban republic. The demagogues in the other party fare no better. Bryan himself has come to occupy a ridiculous position. The Populists have been "pitching into" the Republican President for appointing men without military training, and with only political or family claims, to high positions in the army, and now the Populist Governor of Nebraska puts Bryan in the colonelcy of a regiment, although he knows nothing whatever about the army, and is without the slightest experience even in the militia. Even Populists must be able to see the absurdity of such a performance.

It is the first step that costs. Those supporters of Hawaiian annexation who think that they can take those islands and stop there, and who desire to stop there, are fatally mistaken. They cannot control the onward movement. They cannot even control themselves. It is Hawaii to-day, the Philippines to-morrow, and something else the day after, until we are involved in all the complications of the Old World, and in army and navy expenses to correspond. That this is the expectation of the promoters of Hawaiian annexation is proved by the fact that whenever this so-called expansion is presented to them as an almost necessary consequence of their act, they say that they see no objection to colonies, and then they talk about making markets abroad for our manufactures. The "colonial policy," as understood by ninety-nine-hundredths of those who use the term, means the taking possession of a foreign country, and restricting its trade to our own producers by tariffs more or less exclusive. This is the policy of Spain with Cuba and the Philippines, and in the case of the former island has been the prime cause of the present and past insurrections. Those who talk about "colonial policy" for us, mean that we shall step into Spain's shoes and do what she did as regards trade.

It deserves attention that the Supreme Court of the United States has recently declared the law of citizenship applicable to children born in Hawaii, or in any other place that may become a part of this country. The language employed is as follows: "The fourteenth amendment affirms the ancient and fundamental rule of citizenship by birth within the territory, in the allegiance and under the protection of the country, including all children here born of resident aliens," with the exception of the children of foreign ministers, those born on foreign ships, those of enemies in hostile occupation, and those of Indian parentage. In whatever state of subjection we may expect to hold the motley populations of the Pacific islands, we must therefore exempt from it their children. These, being citizens of the United States, must have the rights of citizenship guaranteed by the Constitution, and no State can exclude them from its limits. The idea of our extending our government to the Philippine Islands is very pleasing to some minds, but it involves the idea that the population of these islands may transfer itself to this country. We may by act of Congress exclude people now in exist-

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ence, but we shall be obliged to welcome the coming generations in all regions over which our flag may float to the full rights of American citizenship. Of the extent of this future immigration no one can form the slightest idea.

The remarks of President Patton, in the baccalaureate sermon which he delivered on Sunday at Princeton, afford an excellent illustration of the prevalence, among our educated classes, of a species of fatalism concerning measures of public policy. There is, no doubt, such a thing as "the logic of events, the march of history, the inevitable," before which we feel helpless; but there is also such a thing as a spirit of devotion to human rights which has altered the march of history, and interrupted what would otherwise have been the logic of events. Nothing could have seemed more in accordance with this logic than that a few thousand Athenians and Lacedæmonians should have submitted to the vast force of the King of Persia; but Thermopylæ and Marathon showed that events are shaped by human determination. We have often heard in this country that right makes might, and the "logic of events" and the "march of history" confirm the truth of the maxim. What conscientious people need to ask now is nothing but the old question—the question which, although tiresome, is just as "inevitable" as the march of history—What ought we to do? Nothing has been done in the present war that cannot be undone if justice demands that it be undone. "The boom of Admiral Dewey's cannon," said President Patton, "made us forget the Farewell Address." On the contrary, it made a great many people remember it; and the wisdom of Washington was never more manifest than at present. The principles that he explained will endure, as permanent appeals to reason, long after the sensations aroused by the boom of cannon and the slaughter of Spaniards have subsided; and it is in such principles that the logic of events is most truly expressed.

The appointment of the clerical force in the Bureau which it is proposed to establish for taking the next and subsequent censuses, has given rise to a vigorous struggle in the Senate. The bill reported by the committee provides for the appointment of the clerical force by the director of the census, after an examination of his own. Senator Cockrell flung down the gauntlet by proposing to amend the bill as reported, by making the clerical force subject to the civil-service laws. He declared that the object of the committee in removing this force from the operation of the law was to make the offices "the spoils of Congress, pure and simple, and unadulterated." Senator Lodge was equally open in asserting that the object in leaving the examination of clerks to the director of the census was to place the offices within the disposal of members of Congress, and he was supported by Senator Hoar. The spoilsmen, of course, repudiated this interpretation of their motives. Some said that the director of the census could have just as good examinations as the Civil-Service Commission; others that this commission was doing the cause of reform great injury. This was the position of Senator Chandler, whose attitude suggested that of the Irish orator who declared his willingness to sacrifice a part of the Constitution, and, if necessary, even the whole, in order to preserve the remainder. He professed great devotion to civil-service reform in the abstract, but fell back on the old ground that "this particular measure" was not desirable, and warned the Commissioners and their friends that by extending the system "upward and downward" they were constituting themselves the foes of genuine civil-service reform.

In spite of the fact that Senator Cockrell modified his amendment to the census bill so as to allow the chief clerk and the principal statisticians to be appointed without regard to the civil-service rules, the "spoilsmen" refused to give up their chance of plunder. Only 18 votes were cast in favor of the amendment to 31 against it. Party lines were not observed in this division, nor was there any reason why they should be, as a "non-partisan" amendment was carried. This provides that the appointments shall be divided in the ratio of one-third to one party and two-thirds to the other, so far as supervisors and enumerators are concerned. It was suggested that this should apply to clerks as well, but, as Senator Chandler justly observed, it would make the non-partisan theory ridiculous to apply it to women. Finally it was agreed that all persons employed in the Census Bureau should be selected on account of special fitness and without reference to their political affiliations. "The bearings of this observation lays in the application on it."

In consequence of the combination of abnormally heavy shipments and abnormally high wheat prices, the country's export of breadstuffs during May not only exceeded in value the highest record for the spring and summer season, but ran some eight or nine million dollars beyond even the December exports of 1891, which up to this date were the largest ever reported in any single month of our history. The comparison with recent years is most extraordinary. Against the $38,280,000 worth of breadstuffs sent abroad last month, there were exported in the same month of 1897 only $13,094,000, and in 1896 only $10,400,000. As compared even with the month of April, 1898, when the movement was already heavy, the May export of breadstuffs increased nearly eleven million dollars. When the figures of our cereal exports for the eleven months ending with May are reckoned together, it appears that the shipments for this period in the present fiscal year exceed those of the same months in 1897 by $116,500,000, those of 1896 by $171,600,000, and those of 1895 by $193,000,000. The student of our commercial and industrial situation hardly needs to go further to explain the powerful situation of the United States in the market for international exchange. It is in fact noteworthy that the increase in exports of the season is not even confined to breadstuffs, but has equally affected the outward movement of such commodities as cattle, pork, lard, dressed meats, and even cotton.

The Agricultural Department last week published its estimate for the growing crops, of which the winter-sown wheat is now so near maturity that forecasts may be made with safety. The estimate shows, as was to be expected after the season's high prices, a great increase in planted acreage of wheat. For the early and late crops combined, the estimated area is 43,000,000 acres, as compared with 39,465,000 acres harvested last year, 34,618,000 in 1896, and only 39,916,800 even in the "record year" 1891. In other words, the planted acreage under wheat this year is by far the largest in our history. Returns of the condition and promise of the crop are equally encouraging. The percentage condition of the winter-wheat crop is better by 12 per cent. than it was a year ago, and is the highest by far since 1891. The spring-wheat prospect, as computed by the Government returns, is apparently unprecedented in the Agricultural Department's records; it is certainly higher than any June estimate in the last fifteen years, and exceeds by 11 per cent. the corresponding estimate of a year ago. The conclusion of the Government experts is that a total crop of 637,300,000 bushels may be expected, which compares with accredited commercial estimates of 580,000,000 bushels last year and 680,000,000 in 1891. If precedent is to guide, the Government's forecast of the yield to be expected under existing circumstances is probably much too low; for the Agricultural Bureau has invariably underestimated the crop, and last year, even in August, published an estimate which the subsequent movement of the grain proved to have been at least one hundred million bushels below the facts. Commercial experts seem to agree at present that the wheat crop of 1898, barring accidents, will exceed considerably even that of 1891. Unless Mr. Bryan promptly achieves military glory in his amateur colonelship, we cannot look altogether hopefully on his prospects or on those of his associates.

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The last proceeding in the Brooklyn Navy-yard dry-dock scandal is quite in keeping with the rest of the sad story. After a trial lasting twenty-four days Civil Engineer A. G. Menocal, U. S. N., who was in charge of the construction of the dock, has been found guilty of neglect and inefficiency in the performance of his duty, and has been sentenced to suspension on furlough pay for three years. This is a ridiculous punishment in view of the great loss to the Government in prestige and money, and in the disabling of the only dock large enough for first-class battle-ships in time of war—that is, if Mr. Menocal is really guilty. About this the court evidently had the gravest doubts, for it not only failed to find him "wholly neglectful" and "culpably inefficient," as the charges specified, but eight out of its nine members signed a recommendation for clemency, "because of his absence under orders at various times, and because of his absence from sickness at times, during the building of the dock; because of the imperfect provision of the contract and the imperfect wording of the same; because of the large amount of work under way at the time of building the dock, and because of the poor assistance Mr. Menocal had for his numerous duties. His attention to his duties, and his zeal and industry in attending to them, are most strongly certified to by all of the commanding officers under whom he served." One may well ask whether the court has not cleared Mr. Menocal by this recommendation and found the Navy Department guilty of some very serious offences, such as the making of imperfect contracts and of failing to provide proper inspectors.

A very important step has been taken by the Rapid-Transit Commission in obtaining an accurate statement of the revenue derived by the city of New York from the taxes on street railroads. Information of this character is an indispensable condition to any permanently satisfactory solution of the problem of the relations of these transportation companies to the municipality. There is a violent outcry against the companies because, it is claimed, they possess franchises of great value for which they pay little or nothing to the city, and many occurrences, recent as well as remote, have been of a nature to justify the charges of corrupt dealing brought against them. The best means of forming intelligent conclusions about the matter is to know what the companies earn and how much they pay, and this we now know officially from the reports of the Comptroller, based on the records of the Finance Department and the reports made to the State Railroad Commission. For the year ending June 30, 1897, the Metropolitan Company paid for percentage and license fees about $266,000, and for taxes on real and personal estate $384,000, a total of about $650,000. It carried during that time about 178,000,000 passengers, and its gross earnings were $8,888,000. It paid, therefore, about 7 1-3 per cent. of its gross earnings in taxes, or about one-third of a cent for each passenger. In view of the great expense of changing the means of propulsion, prospective as well as past, it is doubtful if the rate of taxation is at present lower than is expedient. The Manhattan Company is taxed about $609,000, its gross receipts being $9,163,000, and the number of passengers carried 183,000,000. Its taxes thus amount to about 6 2-3 per cent. of its gross earnings, or about a third of a cent per passenger. The Third Avenue road, on a much smaller business, pays a much lower rate, about 2 8-10 per cent. of its gross earnings, or one-seventh of a cent per passenger. The franchises more recently obtained would thus seem to pay more to the city than the older ones, which is no doubt equitable, but we require more complete statistics than have yet been furnished before a scientific system of taxation can be devised.

Mr. John Morley, by a few words which he uttered at Leeds last week, threw a flood of light on the proposed Anglo-American alliance. So far as that alliance was a union for peace and harmonious coöperation for mutual good, he welcomed it with exceeding gladness; but if it were an alliance of the Jingoes of England with the Jingoes of America, an alliance not for peace but for menace and war, it would be a new curse to both nations. Then he added:

> "I know tens of thousands of the best and wisest men in America who believe that hardly any more inexpressible calamity can befall mankind than that a community, as Lincoln nobly said, conceived in freedom and dedicated to the happiness of free and equal men, should entangle itself in the unrest and intrigue of militarism, which are the torment and scourge of the Old World."

Nothing could be more true or wise or more timely. Friendship we cannot have too much of. Friendship we can have without alliances. Indeed, the very word alliance means enmity to some nation or nations with which the ally is at enmity, but with which we are at peace. We hope never to see the United States in such an alliance. We hope never to see England in such an alliance. The best hopes of mankind are enlisted in the peaceful direction of the energies and resources of both countries. England is able to take care of herself, as Mr. Morley says. She needs no alliance to defend her rights. Nor do we need any to defend ours. All that we need is to keep out of other people's quarrels and to keep our hands off other people's property. We went to war (we solemnly declared) for the distinct and defined purpose of delivering a neighboring people from tyranny and anarchy. That purpose will undoubtedly be achieved. When it is accomplished, let us return to the duty of improving our own country and our own people. In this task there is enough work to employ our undivided energies for a hundred years to come.

What threatened to be a most ugly international dispute disappears with the signing of the Anglo-French convention on Monday respecting the division of territory on the Niger. The settlement has been made in a way to enable each side to claim a victory, and that is surely the highest triumph of diplomacy. The French retain a part of what they had seized, but to make up for it surrender a part of what they had held for a long time. Lord Salisbury gets something and yields something, and though his political opponents will angrily cry out that here is another of his "graceful concessions" to the detriment of England, he has clearly purchased peace at a very small price. English title to the lands in dispute rested upon too dubious treaties with native chiefs, too dubiously negotiated, to go to war to defend. The French Government may well say that it has come out of the affair with credit, but its troubles at home are thickening. M. Méline retains the Premiership only by a thread, and that may be snapped any day. The incurable vice of French political life—the breaking up of the Chamber into endless factions—makes party government and enduring cabinets impossible. As the *Figaro* lately jested, putting the words into the mouth of M. Joseph Prudhomme, contemplating the decreasing birth-rate and the growing number of political parties, "We have two great faults in this country—we do not multiply enough and we divide too much."

Zola's appearance before the Versailles tribunal for his second trial was made the occasion of a fresh manifestation of judicial bias against him. His counsel argued against the competency of the court, on the general ground of what we should call a wrongful change of venue from Paris to Versailles. The court asserted jurisdiction, but M. Labori took an appeal, which gave the Procureur-Général and the presiding judge a fine chance to display their prejudice. Said the former, "Condemned by the Seine jury, and fleeing before the Seine-et-Oise jury, MM. Zola and Perreux will not be tried to-day, but their cause is judged." Then the judge dismissed the jurors, saying to them, "M. Zola will not accept the trial." He also turned to Labori and unctuously reminded him that there was "nothing above the law—nothing, nothing, nothing—not even Zola." Evidently the French courts are still eager to gratify the masses in this melancholy business.

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THE WAR-REVENUE BILL.

The revenue bill in its latest form, while not the best possible measure, and distinctly inferior to that which passed the House, is better than might have been expected when we consider the unsoundness of the Senate in respect of its financial notions. The seigniorage clause, which was the chief point of disagreement with the House, has not been eliminated, but it has been attenuated to a degree where it will be the least hurtful, and will not be hurtful at all under the present administration of the Treasury. The silver bullion owned by the Government is to be coined at the rate of not less than $1,500,000, instead of $4,000,000, per month. Our currency, especially the silver part of it, was in a terrific tangle before, so far as popular comprehension goes. It was unintelligible to the masses, and it cannot be made more so, but it may be more or less intelligible to economists, brokers, and others whose business it is to understand such things. To the latter class, the new scheme for dealing with seigniorage and silver dollars will be rather more obscure than anything that has preceded it, but they will be able to make their way through it, and they will find that it is not nearly so bad as the measure which passed the Senate.

Although the amount of the seigniorage comes to the same thing in the end as the Senate bill provided for, it is not likely to inflate the currency. The clause looking to the issue of silver certificates against the Government's holdings of silver dollars is stricken out of the bill. The public will not take and use any more "cart-wheel dollars" than they are now using. Consequently, the seigniorage dollars will simply rest in the Treasury. They can be paid out whenever there is a public demand for them, and when such a demand exists they will do the minimum of harm. They will add to the Government's demand liabilities, but any prudent Secretary of the Treasury will be able to manage them, as a prudent banker manages his note issues. It should not be overlooked that even under the existing law the coinage of this silver bullion was going on at a slow rate, dependent upon the presentation of Treasury notes for redemption, and that seigniorage is one of the consequences of such coinage.

The bond clause of the bill is in a satisfactory condition. The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to issue $100,000,000 of 3 per cent. certificates of indebtedness, running not more than one year, and $400,000,000 of 3 per cent. bonds, redeemable in ten years, and payable in twenty years. There is no difference between the certificates and the bonds except as to the time they have to run, both being interest-bearing securities, and having no relation to the currency, except that the bonds are available to the national banks as security for their circulating notes. They will undoubtedly be used in preference to the existing 4s and 5s, because they can be obtained at par, and hence there will be no premium to be charged off at the end of each year, or when the bonds become payable. The upshot of the matter is that the Secretary will have $500,000,000 of 3 per cent. securities available for the purposes of the war, which ought to be sufficient. The proceeds of these securities can be used only for the war expenses. This would be a proper provision if any means were devised to distinguish war expenses from other expenses. Probably no harm will come from it in any case, but it might be difficult to say whether the ordinary expenses of the army and navy—those expenses which go on in times of peace—are properly chargeable as war expenses under this bill.

The new inheritance taxes call for separate treatment in conjunction with those of the several States, and we may recur to them hereafter, meanwhile merely pointing out what they are. Legacies or inheritances under $10,000 are exempt. On sums above $10,000 the rates vary according to the degree of relationship to the decedent, those passing from husband to wife or from wife to husband being exempt. On sums above $25,000 the rate of tax is cumulative, *i. e.*, on sums ranging between $25,000 and $100,000 the rates of tax are to be multiplied by one and one-half; on those ranging from $100,000 to $500,000 the rates are to be multiplied by two; on those ranging from $500,000 to $1,000,000 the rates are to be multiplied by two and one-half, and on those above $1,000,000 the rates are to be multiplied by three. The rate of tax for the nearest relationships, parents and children, brothers and sisters, on sums below $25,000, is 75 cents for each $100, on sums between $25,000 and $100,000 it is $1.12½ per $100, and so on to those above $1,000,000, when it becomes $2.25 per $100.

The additional taxes imposed by the bill will probably continue for some time after the war comes to an end. It is desirable that they should so continue, not only for the purpose of liquidating the debt incurred by the war, but to choke the deficit which was left by the Dingley tariff. That wretched measure has yet to learn its fate at the hands of the people, and it is necessary that the Treasury should be made independent of it. It is indispensable, too, that the Treasury should have a surplus in order to keep its various kinds of currency at par with gold. There will be bonds of former issues falling due from time to time, which will absorb any overplus the Secretary may have any time. So there is little danger of his having too much after the war expenses come to an end.

YIELDING TO DESTINY.

Whatever advantages have accrued to natural science from the establishment of the doctrine of evolution, it is certainly doubtful if it has hitherto contributed to the political progress of mankind. In the popular mind this doctrine is associated with the name of Herbert Spencer; but nothing sadder can be imagined than the present position of this philosopher. At the end of a career which may justly be called glorious if not triumphant, he finds himself reduced to declaring that the tendency of evolution is at present contrary to all that is desirable for mankind; that the chief end of man is freedom, while his immediate prospect is slavery. Eventually, Mr. Spencer, of course, holds, this tendency will be changed. The rhythm of progress will become more and more melodious, and the divine event, however far off, will surely come. But his eyes shall not see this event, nor even, perhaps, the reversal of the existing tendency. He can lament, but why should he struggle? It is *Athanasius contra mundum;* it may be magnificent, but it is not war.

Now, while the doctrine of evolution is not to be spoken of disrespectfully, it should be observed that for practical purposes it may be as pernicious as the doctrine of predestination. That doctrine is not easy of refutation, but any one who undertook to carry on his business under its influence would quickly find himself without any business to carry on. For practical purposes men rely on the doctrine that God helps those who help themselves, and political affairs do not differ in this respect from other matters that are under the influence of human volition. It is very easy for people to say that the destiny of our country lies in a certain direction and that it is vain to struggle against it. The fact is that the destiny of such a people as ours depends upon the will of certain classes of its citizens. Some of these citizens are determined to enlarge our limits and to undertake the government of distant islands occupied by peoples of different race, language, and institutions. These citizens declare with great earnestness that this is our manifest destiny; and there is undeniably a disposition among others to accept this declaration as prophecy. But all that it amounts to is a statement of the desire of these citizens that a certain novel policy shall be adopted by our government; and people who talk of yielding to our manifest destiny are really yielding to a popular outcry. It is simply a question of one set of human wills against another set, and our destiny will be whatever is determined by the more powerful set.

That is the sum and substance of the doctrine of evolution as applied to political action. The less people think of destiny and the more they think of

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righteousness and experience, the clearer will be their political views and the more vigorous and consistent their political action. We have a country protected by nature from the intervention or attack of foreign Powers, a government based on the principle of equal political rights, founded on the free consent of the governed, recognizing the superiority of certain inalienable rights to the physical force of rulers. We have been trying the greatest experiment of this kind that the world has yet seen, and we cannot yet say that the work of our hands is finally established. We are now urged to occupy territory that is exposed by nature to foreign attacks, and to set up a government therein that will not be based on the principle of equal rights, that will not be founded on the free consent of the governed, or recognize their right to determine its nature. In so doing, we repudiate the principles in which we have boasted and bring our professions to open shame. We shall impose our laws by force upon other nations, and establish a system of taxation without representation. It seems strange that such a policy as this should be affirmed to be in accordance with our destiny, involving as it does the abandonment of our most cherished traditions. Revolution, rather than evolution, seems the appropriate word to describe it.

But, as we have said, the less plain people muddle their brains with talk about evolution, the better. What every conscientious citizen is called upon to do is to make up his mind and declare his opinion on certain practical measures that are already advocated, and will very soon have to be adopted or rejected. The Lord will not hold him responsible for not determining what our ultimate destiny is to be; that may be called the divine prerogative. But no one can escape responsibility if he has been all his life upholding the Declaration of Independence as Gospel truth, and now takes the position that it is nothing but a tissue of glittering generalities. If other races are rightfully to be held subject by our own, what moral basis is left for democracy? If taxation without representation is just, how long since it became so? If dark people have no rights that white people are bound to respect, what was the significance of the abolition movement? These are questions which foreigners will not hesitate to ask in the most pointed manner, and it is high time for conscientious Americans to gird up their loins like men and prepare them to answer. Let them not lay the soothing unction to their souls that they must accept the decree of destiny and submit to the irresistible force of evolution. What they will accept, if they accept an imperial policy, will be the fierce demands of a set of irresponsible newspaper writers and vociferous politicians, claiming to be the people. What they will submit to will be their own lack of consistent and courageous and honest determination; their own weakness before the clamorous insistence of an impetuous faction, without claim to wisdom, insignificant in numbers, but bent on having its way. If this faction be victorious, it will indeed be in accordance with evolution; but if it is defeated it will just as much be in accordance with evolution, and evolution of a much more satisfactory kind.

COSTLY BOSSES.

It has been discovered by the Republican managers at Washington, who are calculating the chances for securing a majority in the Congress which is to be elected in November, that the two States which make Republican success doubtful are New York and Pennsylvania. The disturbing cause in these two States is the same—a party boss who uses the party habitually as his personal property. Quay is the government of Pennsylvania in the same way that Platt is the government of New York. The methods of both men have been described too often to need particularization now. Neither of them regards himself as the agent of the party, using his leadership of it to strengthen its numbers and increase its power; that is an obsolete idea of the function of a party leader. The modern boss looks upon a party as existing mainly for his personal benefit—not so much to win victories as to give him a basis upon which to lay claim for an authoritative voice in the distribution of offices, to make bargains with the bosses of a rival party, and to levy political blackmail.

What Platt has been doing in this State during the past ten years everybody knows. His performances of last year were simply an extreme application of his usual methods. He obtained great power in the election of 1896 because the people of the State were forced without choice to the support of the Republican party in order to escape the peril of Bryanism. Platt took the victory as his personal property, and at once went to work to make all he could out of it for himself. He had the greater city created with this object in view, and then divided it with Tammany for what he considered a satisfactory price. Tammany has defaulted on the bargain because of Gov. Black's conduct in refusing to ratify the Platt side of it by means of legislation at Albany. The result is that Platt is now trying to prevent Gov. Black's renomination, and is resorting to party practices which are injuring seriously the Republican chances of success in so many congressional districts of the State that there is much alarm at Washington about it.

Platt will care nothing for this. He cares nothing for the success of his party in Congress or anywhere else. What he is working for is Platt and the Platt family, and if he can benefit them he will sacrifice everything, from a Presidential election to a ward caucus. No man in this State knows Platt better than Jacob Worth of Brooklyn. What Worth thinks of him has been made plain many times during the past year, but never more so than in a recent interview. "I have been told," says Worth, in the figurative language so dear to politicians, "that he is the captain of the Republican ship, and I have replied that the coal-bunker is the place for him, and not the quarter-deck." Who can say, in view of Platt's achievements at last year's election, that this is too strong language? The difference between him and a real leader is well set forth by Worth:

> "Once the Republican party in this State had a real leader. His name was Thurlow Weed. He could make personal sacrifices for the benefit of the party. When he picked up a man like William H. Seward, for instance, he watched over him and prevented him from making mistakes and helped him on. Now, in place of Weed we have Platt, who tries to ruin every man who has a spark of manhood, of independence, and honesty. Platt is a coward in war and a renegade in peace."

The purposes for which Weed wanted a man for Governor were very different from those for which Platt wants one. Platt himself said about a former Governor who refused to do his "deal" work for him: "No, I shall not renominate him; he cannot be depended upon in emergencies." The same objection is now made by him to Gov. Black. An "emergency" is always some disreputable "deal" or other which is so obviously infamous that no Governor can consent to do the bidding of the boss without utter loss of character. If Gov. Black had allowed all the "deal" bills which Platt's bargain with Croker included last winter, he would have been "equal to emergencies," would have used his office as a clearing-house for Platt-Croker paper drawn at the expense of the people of the State. He refused to submit to this baseness, and now Platt is determined to get rid of him even if in so doing he costs his party a majority in Congress. What is the peril of a Bryanite majority in Congress compared with peril to the Platt dynasty in New York?

The situation in Pennsylvania is much the same, and is due to exactly the same causes. A stupendous Republican majority in 1896 was virtually obliterated in 1897, and to-day the State is in doubt. In 1896 all but three of the State's thirty representatives in Congress were Republicans. Now the seats of fifteen Republican Congressmen are in danger because of the dissatisfaction in the party which Quay's corrupt personal leadership has caused. There can be no doubt that if the war were not a powerful factor in his favor Quay would be defeated in the election, and the State would be turned over to the Democrats. In no

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other part of the Union is the Republican party in such perilous condition as it is in these two States. So far as New York is concerned, nothing saves the party from annihilation here except the leadership of another boss, of equally detestable character, on the Democratic side. If we flee from Platt, we throw ourselves into the arms of Croker. So long as that situation continues, so long as the people of the State are content to have these two bosses divide the business of government between them, just so long shall we be bracketed with Pennsylvania as the seat of the most harmful political system in the country.

THE IMPORTATION OF BOOKS UNDER THE COPYRIGHT LAW.

A correspondent, on another page, presents an interesting question as to the importation of foreign books which have been copyrighted in the United States. The copyright of a book would be of no commercial value unless the monopoly of a market were assured to its proprietor; and in order to secure exclusive control of the sale of an author's work, it is necessary to bar out copies of any and all editions produced without his consent. This prohibition of importation, therefore, has always been provided for in the copyright statutes. In the earliest Federal copyright act, that of May 31, 1790, it was provided, in section 2, that if any person, after the recording of the title of any book, imported any copies without the written consent of the author or copyright proprietor, signed in the presence of two or more credible witnesses, he should, at the suit of the copyright proprietor, forfeit all the copies and be subject to a fine of fifty cents for every sheet imported; one-half of this amount to go to the proprietor and the other half to the United States. In section 5, however, the act provided that it was not to be construed to prohibit the importation of books written by any person not a citizen of the United States, as copyright was granted by the act of 1790 only for the works of citizens or residents; hence the importation of reproductions of works by authors not citizens was permitted. The same provisions of law were contained in sections 6 and 8 of the first general revision of the copyright law of February 3, 1831.

In 1866 a commission was appointed to revise the statute laws of the United States. It published in 1868, 1869, and 1870 revisions of the patent and copyright law, which led to the adoption of the act of July 8, 1870. This codification of the copyright law became, with unimportant changes, title 60, chapter 3 of the revised statutes, as adopted in 1873, and still remains, with subsequent amendments, the law in force for the protection of literary and artistic property. Section 4964 of the revised statutes provides against the unauthorized printing and importing of books, it being enacted that if any person, without the consent of the copyright proprietor, first obtained in writing, signed in the presence of two or more witnesses, imports any copies of his book, he shall forfeit them to the proprietor, and that he shall also forfeit and pay such damages as may be recovered in a civil action brought by such proprietor within two years in any court of competent jurisdiction. But the provisions of section 5 of the act of 1790 were reënacted in section 4971 of the revised statutes, which provided that "nothing in this chapter shall be construed to prohibit the . . . importation . . . of any book . . . written . . . by any person not a citizen of the United States nor resident therein." By the act of March 3, 1891, section 4971 was repealed, thus removing the statutory provision which for more than a century had made reprinting possible. Otherwise than by this repeal and a special provision concerning the importation of newspapers and periodicals, this act did not affect the prohibition of importation of *unauthorized* editions.

The so-called "International Copyright Act" of March 3, 1891, instituted important changes in copyright matters. One of the most far-reaching of these changes was the requirement that from and after July 1, 1891, books must be manufactured in the United States in order to obtain copyright. To give force to this stipulation, a special proviso was added in section 3 of the act that "during the existence of such copyright the importation into the United States of any book so copyrighted, or any edition or editions thereof, shall be, and is hereby, prohibited." This prohibition of importation is to be distinguished from that embodied in section 4964, as not being concerned with the protection of the copyright proprietor's book market, but only with the requirement that his book shall have been printed in the United States. In order to effect this exclusion of foreign copies of all books copyrighted in the United States, provision is made for the printing and distribution to collectors of customs and postmasters of weekly lists to contain the entries of all books "wherein the copyright has been completed by the deposit of two copies of such book printed from type set within the limits of the United States."

Under date of July 3, 1891, the Treasury Department issued a circular instructing collectors of customs that copyrighted books under the provisions of section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891, should not be admitted to entry, and if imported *with* the consent of the proprietor of the copyright, the books are to be seized as forfeited to the United States; but if the attempted importation be *without* the consent of the author or copyright proprietor, the latter is to be notified so that he can proceed to enforce his right to their forfeiture to himself. The circular makes a distinction between copyrighted articles prohibited importation by the section cited, and "copyrighted articles the importation of which is not prohibited, but which are forfeited to the proprietor of the copyright when imported without his previous consent," under section 4965 of the revised statutes. No mention is made in this document of section 4964, which provides the like remedy in case of the unauthorized importation of books, but in another circular, issued February 3, 1896, attention is directed to section 4964 as giving protection against the importation of unauthorized copies *for sale*.

On June 22, 1896, the Treasury Department was again called upon to record its interpretation of the special prohibition of importation in relation to chromolithographs; and the law was laid down that the "importation of articles of this character copyrighted in the United States, with or without the consent of the owner of the copyright, is in violation of sections 3 and 8 of the act of March 3, 1891"; and on October 31 of the same year the department ruled that chromos (copies of copyrighted paintings but not copyrighted as chromos) are not prohibited importation under section 3 of the act. In 1897 an actual case occurred as follows: The American copyright proprietors of an English book, having exhausted their edition printed in the United States, imported fifty-seven copies of the English edition, which were seized. This importation was not covered by section 4964, because made by the copyright proprietor himself and therefore with his consent. But the Treasury Department, when appealed to for a release of the books, refused to interfere, ruling that they were liable to forfeiture to the United States under section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891.

When the special prohibition of importation which we have quoted was included in section 3 of the above-named act, certain exceptions were enacted. It was agreed that newspapers and magazines which did not contain any copyrighted matter printed without the authorization of the author should be exempted from the prohibition. Importation was also permitted in the case of persons purchasing for use, and not for sale, not more than two copies of a book at any one time. This latter exception came before the Treasury Department for consideration in the case of the importation of pirated Canadian copies of 'Ben Hur.' The publishers of Gen. Wallace's book contended that the prohibition of importation enacted in section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891, was for the purpose of preventing the importation of books published with the consent of the author in foreign countries, except that books so published might be im-

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ported for use, and not for sale, to the extent of not more than two copies, as stated above; and that the importation of a book published without the consent of the author in a foreign country is an infringement of the copyright, and subjects such book to forfeiture under section 7 of the act. The question was submitted to the Department of Justice, and an opinion rendered April 19, 1895, deciding that the provisions as to prohibition of importation contained in section 3 of the act of March 3, 1891, apply to books copyrighted before the act was put into force as well as to books copyrighted since the passage of the act, and that the exception to this prohibition in favor of two copies of foreign printed books imported for personal use, and not for sale, is not limited in its application to the *authorized* editions of such books. It seems quite clear, therefore, that in the case of the French book mentioned by our correspondent, the law allows any person to import for his own use, but not for sale, two copies at any one time.

In addition to the two special exceptions to the prohibition of importation noted above, several paragraphs from the tariff act of 1890, remitting the payment of duties in certain cases, were transferred in a lump to the copyright law to serve as further exceptions to the general enactment of non-importation. This furnishes a good example of a method of legislation that should be avoided. The taking over of a group of provisions relating to one subject of legislation into a statute dealing with an entirely distinct subject would naturally lead to difficulties of interpretation and contrarieties. Moreover, the statute from which these sections were taken was replaced by a new tariff act in 1894, and the first question that arises is, Did the repeal of the tariff act of 1890 render these provisions nugatory in the copyright law? Neither the courts nor the Treasury Department seem to have rendered any decision on this point in our tangled legislation, but we believe that, so far as the copyright law is concerned, paragraphs 512 to 516, inclusive, of the free list of the tariff act of 1890 have still the force of law.

Briefly stated, these paragraphs exempt from the prohibition of importation under consideration books when (a) printed more than twenty years, (b) when printed exclusively in languages other than English, (c) when printed in raised characters for the blind, (d) when imported for the use of the United States, the Library of Congress, or for public libraries, or incorporated institutions of learning, and (e) when belonging to persons from foreign countries, if actually used by such persons not less than one year.

We will not go into these various provisions in detail, but it seems clear that, by reason of the first exception, the prohibition of importation ("during the existence of such copyright," instead of the full term of copyright protection, forty-two years) really endures but twenty years; while the second exception allows the importation of a book when it is printed exclusively in a language other than English, and this exception is not qualified by any limitation as to private use or number of copies.

THE LATE FRENCH ELECTIONS.

PHILADELPHIA, June 7, 1898.

In the twenty years during which the Republic has solidly established itself in France, it has sought a stable majority that would permit it to live and to advance. It has not yet found one. In the French chambers an immense majority is for the Republic; but as to the form of that Republic, and the conceptions and principles that should direct and govern it, men differ, and the Republic suffers from their divisions. For twenty years it has oscillated between the opportunist doctrine which would have the Republic take root gradually and advance with short steps, and the radical doctrine which intends a brusque, swift, and incessant progress; and it inclines towards each in turn without ever reaching a decision, and its hesitancy is the cause of numerous haltings and numerous shocks.

Ministries are forced to maintain themselves not by obliging one party, but by satisfying several, which is the best method of displeasing all. Compromises, deals, luffing among the shoals, are the ordinary manœuvres in which ministers employ their strength, talent, and dexterity. From time to time, weary of the policy of compromise, they have tried one of vigor and explicitness, which for a moment seemed successful since it pleased as a novelty. Then, after a while, it, too, showed itself powerless to create anything fixed and stable, and return was made to the old method, which also lasted as long as it could. In the past ten years the chief representatives in France of the policy of compromise have been successively MM. de Freycinet and Ribot; of vigorous policy, MM. Charles Dupuy and Casimir-Périer. Both have had the same fate. At the end of about six months, the equilibrium preserved by means of suppleness and coolheadedness suddenly gave way, and there was one more ministry in history.

In the Chamber of Deputies there has been for twenty years a Moderate Republican majority, stronger than the Radical and Socialist group and than the Monarchist and Clerical group respectively, but weaker than the two combined, so that a coalition of these parties absolutely hostile, and owning not a single idea in common, was enough at once to put a Moderate ministry in a minority. For a considerable time, in the epoch of the establishment of the Republic, and at the date of passage of the principal laws which are properly the republican work, the necessary complement of the Moderate majorities was taken from the Radical group. This was called the policy of concentration. The Republicans, Moderate and Radical, forgetting what separated them, united against the Right. To this policy was due the enactment of the military laws reducing the term of service to three years, and making it compulsory upon all, even priests; and especially obligatory and lay public instruction. But, apart from certain great questions, the Radicals distinctly held aloof from the Moderate Republicans. Turbulent, uneasy, with an appetite for opposition to the knife, they formed a very unstable element in the Moderate majority, and never missed an opportunity, on some secondary point, of abandoning the bulk of the party for a coalition, temporary but effective, with the Right, for the overthrow of a ministry.

Thus the day when, the principal republican laws having been enacted, and the Monarchist Right being no longer a menace because of its increasing feebleness, the constitutional question passed to its second stage, the Moderate Republicans looked elsewhere for support. After 1893 the danger was no longer in monarchy, or even in Cæsarism, but in Socialism, which for the first time became an important factor, having more than forty members, and embracing some of the most eloquent orators in the Chamber. The steady growth of Socialism engendered the necessity of the policy practised for nearly two years by M. Méline, a sort of concentration to the Right, consisting in borrowing from the group of *ralliés*, and even from the conservative Monarchists, the votes hitherto taken from the Radicals. It has proved more durable than the concentration to the Left because, in the first place, M. Méline is, on account of his protectionism, particularly popular with the agricultural population represented by the Right, and because the Right has discovered that a Moderate ministry is worth more to them than a Radical, and that they have greatly injured themselves by playing so long at the game of upsetting cabinets.

The question at the recent elections on May 8 and 22 was to ascertain whether the country would grant the Moderate Republicans and the *ralliés* the needful majority with which to confront at once the impenitent Monarchists and the Radical Socialists. On all sides it was asserted that such would be the case, and that the elections would witness the crushing out of Radicalism, caught between the Moderates and the Socialists, and the triumph of the Government Republicans. In numberless speeches, M. Méline in the Vosges, M. Barthou in the Pyrenees, M. Ribot in St. Omer, enforced the necessity of having at last a majority in the Chamber. By dint of talking of it, the Moderates imagined that they were going to get it. Alas! the results show that they were badly out. Not only have they not augmented their number, they have lost a notorious quantity of seats; the Radicals and the Socialists have increased their following, and the situation, far from having bettered itself, has assumed a really grave character.

The returns published by the ministry vainly announced in the new Chamber 254 Moderate Republicans, as against 250 in the former Chamber—four more! In vain were 235 Radicals found in place of 248—that is to say, thirteen less! The first political manifestation of the Chamber showed that the strength of the Opposition is nearly or quite equal to that of the Government. In the ballot for President the Government's candidate, M. Paul Deschanel, in fact received 282 votes, while the Opposition candidate had 278—which indicates a majority of four in favor of the Premier. The truth is, we must count as Opposition, not the Radicals alone, but a certain number of Monarchists who prefer disorder to the Republic, and

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a score of former Boulangists now masquerading under the names of Anti-Semites and Nationalists—a formless crowd which for ten years has been the permanent leaven of every folly and extravagance in the Chambers. All these, together, form in the Lower House a heterogeneous and desperate group of some 280 members, very competent to the overthrow of the ministry, to making interpellations and provoking tumults, but powerless to inspire or to direct a policy.

Foreigners may ask how it is that in the French Chamber no majority exists in favor of any political or social doctrine. The reason of it is very simple, namely, that no majority exists in the country. The only thing that France knows clearly, and says without ambiguity when it votes, is, that it wants the Republic. What Republic? What are the principles that should animate it? The doctrine of slow, intermittent and gradual progress heralded by opportunism; or, on the contrary, the doctrine of forward march, with haste and violence, without regard to routine or tradition, heralded by radicalism? The species of collectivist demagogy which the Socialists have in hand, or the Cæsarian, clerical, and retrograde demagogy of which, without a proper conception of it, a certain number of Boulangists dream? As to all this the country says nothing because it knows nothing.

The French masses, as a whole, have no very distinct political education; and, furthermore, the French elections do not turn on politics alone. Indeed, the suffrage is so organized that the Deputy represents not so much a political doctrine as a small arrondissement—in other words, a petty territory quite restricted, having generally on the average 20,000 voters, where he is known, judged, and appreciated, beloved or detested, not according to his ideas, but according to his attitude towards his fellow-citizens, and the services he has rendered or may yet render them. It is sometimes said: Such an arrondissement is Royalist, Bonapartist, Moderate. The truth is, that this arrondissement contains a man of wealth, influence, and popularity, who for many years has, as Deputy, rendered great services, and whom the accident of birth has made a Monarchist, a Bonapartist, or a Moderate. His compatriots elect him, not for his views, but for his personality. There are thus in France a great number of rotten boroughs which have for a long period belonged to families.

This very year, for example, we have seen seats like that of the Bonapartist de Cassagnac in Gers, return to Bonapartism, which they abandoned four years ago. Shall we say that Gers, after having been Republican for four years, has become Bonapartist again? No; it means that M. de Cassagnac, who lost his seat by reason of having neglected the electors, has regained it on becoming more solicitous to satisfy them. M. Jaurès, the mighty Socialistic orator, was beaten in the arrondissement which he represented by a marquis, a local lord, rich and influential. Has, then, the district formerly revolutionary suddenly become Moderate or *rallié*? No; the simple fact is, that the Marquis de Solages is a gentleman who possesses a larger fortune than does M. Jaurès, and has rendered more services to the electors.

People are not aware of the slight importance which politics has in many districts. A Deputy is popular if he be rich, powerful, a "good fellow," on familiar terms with humble folk, and especially if he have, in common parlance, a long arm to obtain favors for his electors from the Government. It is only in the cities that politics plays a more important part, and that it concerns a Deputy to have advanced ideas and to keep step with the Opposition parties. In general, the French populace, already much infected with radicalism, is taking great strides towards Socialism. All the chief industrial centres are to-day nearly won over to it. Paris, where, beside a bourgeoisie, lives so numerous a proletary, has always been in the van of all political movements. To-day the great majority of its wards are revolutionary-socialistic. So likewise with Marseilles. Lyons and Bordeaux, once exclusively opportunist, are now strongly carried away by the Socialists. Wherever a working population exists, Socialism has made marked progress. The check given to its two most intelligent leaders is purely accidental. Jules Guesde and Jaurès, the theorist and the orator, of the party, were both beaten by rich patrons having a great clientèle of workingmen.

Another party which is also forging ahead, but less vigorously, is the "Nationalist-Anti-Semite." Composed of low demagogues who work upon what Jaurès calls the elementary instincts of the mob—that is to say, a crude patriotism and a beastly hatred of foreigners—it has profited by the stupid legends implanted in the intelligent public in connection with the Dreyfus affair, which many imbeciles regarded as the manœuvre of a "Jewish syndicate."

The Royalists have lost altogether only nine votes, and the *ralliés* have gained eight. Apparently there will, for a long time to come, remain in the Chamber a small minority of representatives of the former régimes, whose rôles will consist in tipping this way and that the parliamentary scale, with the resulting paradox that French policy receives its principal direction from the smallest and seemingly the feeblest of the parties.

Past experience, serviceable in forecasting the work of a Chamber which so much resembles other Chambers, teaches us that this one will be as the others have been. Turbulent, impressionable, very sensitive to the influence of Opposition orators when they appeal at once to its Chauvinism and its demagogic passion, it will slaughter as many ministries as its predecessors have done, and will be succeeded by a Chamber no better than itself. Universal suffrage has few surprises for those who have practised it a bit.

OTHON GUERLAC,
Editor of the Paris *Siècle*.

THE SITUATION IN ITALY.

ROME, May 26, 1898.

The present troubles in Italy should not be taken as an indication of the poverty of the country, or of a general distress due to class-poverty inducing real suffering more than that which is at all times found in any population where public resources are ill administered. In other years, when the price of grain was much higher, there has been perfect quiet, and the proof that the present disturbances are not due either to the want of bread or of work is that they are, like the strikes, the most grave where there is least want of either, as in Milan, the most prosperous and industrious city of Italy, in Pavia, Bari, and Leghorn, where there is no want of work, and where, with the recent concessions of the Government, the taxes on breadstuffs have brought the price of bread to the usual level. In fact, we get in Rome an excellent whole-meal bread, such as I have rarely eaten in London, at thirty centimes the kilogramme, or 1½d. the pound. In sections where the destitution is the greatest there has been no violation of the peace.

The difficulty is even graver. It lies in a progressive demoralization of the State, a growing relaxation of civic discipline, an indifference to the *res publica* in every department of the Government, from the electors, who no longer concern themselves with the election of Deputies, to the head of the State, who abandons all the constitutional checks on the caprices of a frivolous Executive. There is no longer any criterion of internal policy, as there has long been no continuity in the external; the Government has no definite purpose except to remain in power, and to this end it has attempted to conciliate every section in the multicolored politics of the country by turns, and has allied itself in the elections as readily with the Republican as with the Conservative, until the Legislature is a complete chaos, and every measure which is demanded by the stability of the institutions is defeated by the defection of some section of the majority; and the legislative record of the two past years is read in the withdrawal of project after project of laws for indispensable ameliorations of the condition of the population at large. Since the present Ministry took office it has not passed a single important measure, but has withdrawn one after another brought in, on the defection of a section of its mosaic majority. And all this time it has flirted with the Republicans and "dealt" with Cavallotti, the chief organizer of legislative anarchy in the Chamber, steadily and knowingly increasing the strength of the dissolvent element in Italian politics, in mortal fear of being found in a minority, and so fostering in the strongest measure the confidence of the revolutionary party. The severity and promptitude with which Crispi repressed the risings of 1893 were made the ground of political attacks on him, in which the Conservatives, from personal antagonism to the man, took part, and the present Government is paying the penalty. The Conservative element in politics, either in the country at large or in the Chamber, has no conception of the necessity of organizing to meet the disciplined action of the small Republican minority, which has its strength multiplied by its organization, a condition which exists in no other party, for the Conservatives (also a minority) agree in nothing but the hatred of Crispi and any strong Ministry which they cannot control. When in the State the party of order is indifferent, the party of disorder grows strong, and this is now the condition in the entire peninsula. The genuine Republican element is insignificant, but disorder is popular, and, with a weak and discordant Government like the present, inevitable.

Italy is not yet consolidated, and the liberties gained with such sacrifices by a patriotic minority are made valueless by the antagonisms of fractions and sections which spend their strength, like the Byzantines during the Turkish siege, in quarrels, and leave the future of the country to chance

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and intrigue, external and internal. It is to this condition of political anarchy that the present disorders must be attributed. The Government has no policy and no civic courage: it lives by expedients and lets to-morrow care for itself; the King declines to exercise his prerogative, and the better part of the population all over the country would hail a dictatorship with delight and relief, if the Dictator could be found. Under these circumstances the rapidly increasing unpopularity of the King is a most dangerous element in the complication. Italy is not ready for a republic, and if it came it could be only one of anarchy more or less complete. Socialism is a mere effervescence of theorists, but adds dangerously to the disorder because there is no help from the Government; and Socialism and Republicanism, through the incompetence of the Government and the indifference of the King, may capture the State. In fact, the only safeguard against a revolution to-day is in the army, which is, I believe, perfectly loyal and safe, and is the only disciplined institution in Italy, including in it the navy. But the army is only a defensive institution, and cannot long defend incompetence.

The active element in the alarming events of the late four days at Milan, Pavia, etc., is Clericalism in alliance with the Republicans and Socialists; but the passive elements, which are by far the most dangerous, are the disaffection with the inefficiency of the Government; the corruption of the Legislature and of the judiciary, with its consequence of constant and patent miscarriage of justice; the indifference of the better classes to the elections, and their contempt for parliamentary government; and, worst of all, the virtual abdication of all his prerogatives by the King, whom one may hear anywhere and everywhere spoken of as "that man of straw." Italy is drifting, and States do not drift long before getting into breakers. W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

A COPYRIGHT QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A Boston publisher gives notice that he has secured the rights in America and England of a certain French book, that the French text has been set up in this country and will be copyrighted here. The firm contends that no copies of the original Paris edition in French can be imported or kept for sale by dealers in America. Is this really the law, and can the original Paris edition be thus kept from the American book-buyer? A cheap and nasty edition may be set up here, simply to secure the copyright of the translation, and the American holder of the copyright may thus wish to force the American public to buy his translation. Can the lawful original issue of any book be kept out of a country which is a party to the international copyright act? The Tauchnitz volumes are authorized reprints in Germany, but nobody is prevented from securing the original London edition of any book contained in the Tauchnitz series. Some years ago a New York firm issued a similar caveat covering the French original of 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' but to my recollection their contention was not good law. Can you enlighten an

INTERESTED PARTY?

NEW YORK, May 17, 1898.

NEW METHODS AT HINGHAM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A certain publicity has been given, among teachers and others, in various parts of the country, to an announcement according to which I am to be a member of the faculty of the "New School of Methods," a school for teachers, which is to meet at Hingham, Mass., July 18-29. According to the announcement in question, I am said to be one of two officers who are to represent the "Department of Psychology," as "lecturers in this department." The announcement also speaks of me as about to give "discourses at the New School of Methods this summer on such subjects as the Problem of Knowledge, Realism and Idealism, the Problems of Nature, and more particularly on the growth of the child mind and its perception of and relation to the world outside."

As a fact, I was not long since asked to give, at some time between July 18 and July 29, a *single* evening lecture, before the "New School of Methods" at Hingham, on a psychological topic. At that time I consented to give this one lecture, and to have my name announced for this sole task. I assumed no other responsibility than this for any enterprise connected with the school, and did not promise any series of "discourses" upon any topics whatever.

For good and sufficient reasons, I have now found it imperatively necessary to cancel this single engagement. I have now no connection whatever with the "New School of Methods," at Hingham or elsewhere.

Yours sincerely, JOSIAH ROYCE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 10, 1898.

FELLOWSHIPS FOR WOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The European Fellowship which is awarded annually by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, has been given this year, as has already been announced, to a very satisfactory candidate; but, in making the choice which they have done, the committee of award have been obliged to pass by other candidates whom it is a real loss to the cause of sound learning among women not to be able to send out for a year of study at a foreign university.

As an indication of the sort of work which women college students are doing nowadays, the following extracts from letters of recommendation written for different candidates by professors in the colleges where they have studied, form interesting reading: "I have never had a student whose work I could more unreservedly commend for its originality, acuteness, and thoroughness." This is said of a student who is only just taking her first degree: "Both in ability and attainment she is far above the average graduate student, and I have rarely seen any student who, even after some years of advanced study, has shown such effective grasp of the subject and such power of independent work." This comes from Chicago: "As a careful, intelligent investigator, she is among the best in the University; I have never met a student whose work and promise I could more heartily endorse." One of the most distinguished of German professors writes: "This work is most admirable, and I have only to learn from it." Of another candidate it is said: "The professors under whom she has studied, especially at Leipzig, Heidelberg, and Berlin, uniformly speak of her, not as being one of their best American students (which is the usual form of praise), but as the absolute equal of the best students in their department." Of a paper already published in one of the German philological journals, a college professor says: "It is on the nominative singular of weak substantives in old High German—one of the most vexing problems in historical German grammar. The new explanation is, in my opinion, correct, and I appreciate her paper both as a very gratifying addition to our present knowledge of Germanic grammar, and as a testimony of its author's advanced scholarship and high aims." This is the account of a student at an Eastern university: "She has a very unusual record, having carried off the double *summa cum laude*, which no college student took in her year."

In her last printed report, the chairman of the committee of award says that in the earlier years of the fellowship it was customary for the college professors, after commending the originality exhibited by some candidate, to add the phrase "so very rare in a woman," but that, for the year covered by the report, that addition had, for the first time, not once occurred. This year there is a return to the idea, but it occurs in the course of such a remarkable piece of commendation that the most sensitive guardian of the interests of her sex could not object to it:

> "It was thus possible for me to become well acquainted with the qualities of her mind, and to compare her with the young men who were taking the same course. The comparison was to her advantage. She has, I believe, not only a quick and receptive mind, but also a capacity for independent thought and original investigation which (with my very limited experience) I suppose to be even rarer in women than in men. I regard her as one of the most promising scholars I have had the pleasure of teaching, and of much greater ability than many men—of greater ability than most men—who hold travelling fellowships and scholarships."

To be obliged to deny a fellowship to such candidates as this has been a painful task to the committee of award. Very large sums of money are spent annually upon the exclusive education of men; it seems as if it would be no more than fair if a somewhat generous provision should be made for sending to Europe those women whose studies have been carried so far that a foreign residence is essential to their continuance. It is certain that nothing better could be done with several sums of ten thousand dollars than to add a few permanent European fellowships to the one that is now awarded by the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ; immediate necessities could be relieved by the contribution of several sums of five hundred dollars. Remittances for this purpose may be made to Mrs. Helmer, No. 1428 Michigan Avenue, Chicago; Mrs. I. J. Backus, No. 57 Livingston Street, Brooklyn; or to Mrs. C. Ladd Franklin, No. 1507 Park Avenue, Baltimore. X.

WAR AND LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the *Nation's* article of June 2, "War as a Literary Stimulus," are we "bound to believe that the Spaniard [Señora Emilia Pardo Bazán], tasting the bitterness of war, is nearer the truth than

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the Englishman [Sir Walter Besant], knowing it only as a spectacle"? Señora Bazán asserts in the *Revue des Revues* that "when a nation finds itself at the edge of a precipice, it is forced to withdraw its attention from its writers. Letters require a tranquil spirit." Sir Walter contends that war has an awakening influence upon the literary as upon the civic character.

Let us look for a moment at several of the great literary periods of the world. When Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio created the first modern literature, was not Italy desolated from the Alps to Tarentum by the fierce struggles of Guelph and Ghibelline? When Voltaire and Rousseau ruled the world of literature, had not France reached the ebb-tide of humiliation in war: defeated at Rossbach, compelled to sign the peaces of Aix-la-Chapelle and Versailles, forcibly deprived of her hold upon India and of her colonies? When Goethe and Schiller were in the zenith of their creative powers, had not Germany almost ceased to exist politically? Did not 1806, the year after Schiller's death, see the secession of the Rheinbund, the abdication of Francis II., the battles of Jena and of Auerstädt, Napoleon in Berlin, where the pusillanimous nobility urged the common people to cheer the Emperor, crying, "For heaven's sake give a hearty hurrah; cry, *Vive l'Empereur!* or we are lost"; and Napoleon said, "I know not whether to rejoice at my success or to feel ashamed for this people"? During this time and the even greater degradation that followed, Goethe was at work upon "Faust," the first part of which appeared in 1808. Was not Germany then on the "edge of a precipice"? Did it "withdraw its attention from its writers"? Do "letters require a tranquil spirit"?

EDWARD MEYER.

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.

Notes.

The Harpers have in press a volume of 'Collections and Recollections,' by "One who has kept a Diary," a Radical M.P.

The Macmillan Co. will publish at once 'Questions and Answers in the Theory and Practice of Military Topography,' by Major J. H. Bowhill.

The Croscup & Sterling Co., New York, will undertake, in conjunction with J. M. Dent & Co., London, a new edition of the Saintsbury Balzac in twenty volumes, illustrated with full-page etchings from the original plates.

The Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, will issue next week an 'Introduction to the Study of North American Archæology,' by Prof. Cyrus Thomas, with 108 illustrations.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co. announce for immediate issue 'Hay Fever: Its Successful Treatment,' by Dr. W. C. Hollopeter of Philadelphia.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, has in press 'The Real Gladstone,' by J. Ewing Ritchie, consisting of anecdotes and quotations from that statesman's speeches and writings.

Mr. James Bryce's masterly appreciation of Mr. Gladstone, unabridged, has been promptly made into a pretty book by the Century Co. The matter is displayed under seven subheads, viz., Introduction, Early Influences, Parliamentarian, Orator, Originality and Independence, Social Qualities, Authorship, Religious Character. A vigorous portrait of Mr. Gladstone in his late prime furnishes a frontispiece.

The new (third) edition of Miss Scidmore's 'Guide-Book to Alaska' (Appletons) brings the Bering Sea question down to date, and adds a chapter on the Klondike, with an account of the several avenues to the gold fields and a map.

The pith of Walt Whitman is to be found in the Selections from his Prose and Poetry made by Dr. Oscar Lovell Triggs of the University of Chicago, a fervent disciple. The scarce preface to the first edition of 'Leaves of Grass' is here. The typography of the book is much marred by the affectation of dispensing with paragraph-indention, as well as by the uncentred sub-titles. A selected bibliography is appended, and a biographical sketch precedes.

We noticed last week the enterprise of the Colonial Society of Pennsylvania in reproducing in facsimile Bradford's *American Weekly Mercury*. We learn that the work will be pushed to completion at the rate of two volumes a year, and that the price has now been made uniform to members and non-members alike, namely, five dollars a volume. The office of the publication committee is at 1208 Betz Building, Philadelphia.

The second and final volume of the new illustrated History of Swedish Literature, a preliminary notice of which was given in these columns two years ago, has recently appeared in Stockholm. The first part, by Prof. Henrik Schück, treated the literature from the earliest period of the runic inscriptions to the beginning of the eighteenth century; the second volume, by Prof. Karl Warburg, carries the survey down to the year 1830. It is further stated that it is the intention of the author to publish a supplementary volume covering the last seventy years. The reputations of the two authors are sufficient guarantee of the excellence of their work, which is the first complete history of Swedish literature ever published.

It is with something of a shock that one opens the belated report for 1895 of the Smithsonian Institution, to find the general and summary review by the late G. Browne Goode, Assistant Secretary. Apart from the report proper and its appendices, the stout volume is almost wholly occupied with two elaborate and learned papers, "The Social Organization and the Secret Societies of the Kwakiutl Indians," by Dr. Franz Boas, and "The Graphic Art of the Eskimos," by Dr. Walter James Hoffman. Both of these are copiously and often beautifully illustrated, and are a mine of authentic information. Not to be overlooked, also, are the "Notes on the Geology and Natural History of the Peninsula of Lower California," by George P. Merrill, with interesting views of the curious landscape of the peninsula.

Cassell & Co., No. 7 West Eighteenth Street, send us the first three of five 'Royal Academy Pictures' for the current exhibition. As heretofore, the plates are excellent memoranda by photographic process, and they are completely unprovided with text, critical or other, if we except the legend under each. On the other hand, M. Philippe Gille resumes his pen in comment on the Salon, in 'Figaro Salon,' which has begun to be distributed on this side of the water by Jean Boussod, Manzi, Joyant & Co., Goupil's representatives in this city (No. 170 Fifth Avenue). Neither assortment is particularly exhilarating, artistically considered. As usual, the several numbers of the French publication have each a separate color print twice the page size.

The principal article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May is a statement of the Argentine side of the Chilian-Argentine boundary question. The Argentine Republic maintains that the summit of the chain of the Andes forms the boundary, while Chili contends that it follows the watershed. These two lines are independent for at least five degrees of latitude, and the territory in dispute is "the most fertile, the best fitted for the establishment of agricultural colonies," in all Patagonia. The article contains many fresh geographical details in respect to this interesting region. There are also accounts of explorations in the Tian-Shan Mountains in southwestern Siberia, and a summary of the principal geographical results of French expeditions to the bend of the Niger. In addition to the maps illustrating the articles is an excellent map of Cuba prepared in 1896 for the "Service Géographique de l'Armée."

The opening article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen;* No. 4, is a description, by Lieut. Werther, of a region in German East Africa in which a Hamburg company has obtained land and mining concessions. The accompanying map, the result of an exploring expedition sent out by it, is an unusually fine specimen of cartography. The editor, Dr. Supan, contributes a series of tables showing the foreign trade of China for 1896. In closing, he dwells upon the great significance which the acquisition of Kiao-Chau will have for German commerce.

The Russian petroleum trade in 1897 is described by our consul at Batum, Mr. J. C. Chambers, in the Consular Reports for May. The average daily production of 657 wells was about 139,000 barrels, which, though the largest output up to that time, has become 200,000 barrels during the present year. Signs are not wanting, however, of the coming exhaustion of the Baku territory, and efforts are being made to find new oil-fields, so far without success. With the larger production there has also been an immense increase in the demand for residuum for fuel. Great Britain took the most oil, 44,000,000 gallons, India and Turkey taking the next largest amounts. Consul-General Du Bois sends an instructive and encouraging comparison between the labor conditions in Europe and in the United States, the locomotive fireman being taken as an example.

"Some Geological Evidence regarding the Age of the Earth" is the subject of an address delivered before the Royal Physical Society of Edinburgh by Mr. J. G. Goodchild, retiring Vice-President. He says that all who have made the attempt have realized that it is impossible, with our present knowledge, to state the antiquity of the oldest strata containing fossils "in terms of centuries, thousands of years, or even in millions." After reviewing certain changes which are known to have taken place, he concludes that "seven hundred millions of years carry us back to the commencement of the Cambrian period, but not to the beginning of life upon the earth," which, he argues, "must be vastly more remote—perhaps as much farther back from Cambrian times as they are removed from our own."

"Occurrences and Mining of Manjak in Barbados" is the title of a paper by Walter Merivale published in the April number of the Transactions of the North of England

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Institute of Mining and Mechanical Engineers. Manjak is "one of the many bitumens that the modern demand for insulating-material, varnishes, waterproofs, etc., has called into the market." "The Coal Seams of the Transvaal," and "The Economical Combustion of Coal for Steam-Raising Purposes," are among the other subjects treated in this number.

Some new refinements in the use of the words impression, edition, and reissue are proposed by the Publishers' Association of London for general adoption. They desire each title-page to bear the date of the year of publication—that is, putting on the market—as well as of reissue, but with a bibliographical note on the back of the title-page recording this latter fact. In the same place should be indicated the date at which the book was last revised. Impression is to mean "a number of copies printed at one time"; a new impression, "a reprint without change." Edition signifies some change, even to resetting; reissue, "a republication at a different price, or in a different form, of part of an impression which has already been placed on the market." The area to which the circulation of an impression is limited by agreement should also be conspicuously stated. The record "Fifteenth impression (third edition)" would indicate the relative frequency of revision.

—"B." writes to us:

"Your correspondent, Mr. Dooley, in your last issue, informs us that 'Death is the only means by which a human being can go to heaven.' This, though highly interesting, is not novel. It was known as early as the sixteenth century. In the interlude called 'The Four P's,' the Poticary and the Pardoner are disputing as to the merits of their respective callings. The former boasts that in the practice of his profession he has sent multitudes to heaven. On this the Pardoner queries:

'Though you had slain a thousand in the place,
How came they to Heaven, dying out of grace?'

and the Poticary retorts:

'And though a thousand pardons about their neck were tied,
How came they to Heaven if they never died?' "

—In the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June one may read a succinct account of the changing character of the Board of Overseers from its foundation, as a prelude to an impartial statement of the recent contest, in the Board and in the Massachusetts Legislature, over the extension of the suffrage in the election of the Board. The measure has been hung up for a year, but its ultimate passage is certain. Of wider interest is Samuel Hoar's argument on the taxation of college property. The frontispiece of the number is a view of the Phillips Brooks House about to be built at the northwestern angle of the College yard, and it appears that the designer, Mr. A. W. Longfellow, has adapted himself not only to the elder adjacent buildings, but also to the college gateway. In keeping with these boundaries will doubtless be the gate offered by the Class of 1873, so that in time we may look for a complete harmonious enclosure. Of real moment is the abandonment, from sheer unwieldiness of the classes, of the Class-Day "exercises" about the tree, with the disorderly scramble for flowers, in favor of a truly dignified and manly order of song and speech in another part of the grounds. The war party has the floor in the chronicle of Harvard's choice in the late attempted stampede of college students to the recruiting sergeant, and already we are bidden to look for the tablets that will commemorate militant patriots worthy in all respects of the honor accorded the dead alumni of the civil war. "The principal motive of these men [the actual volunteers of the present hour]," we are told, forestalling the judgment of posterity, "was a generous spirit of self-sacrifice, such as the University expects from her sons in time of danger." But what danger was the country in? And if any, how was it brought on us? There is material for a tablet that will lack nothing of the honor of any yet erected at Harvard, in the news item relating the deed of gift by Mr. Alexander Agassiz of his collections and library in the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, on the modest condition of personal use of them as if still his own; and in the fact that this bounty caps gifts in money to the Museum and to other college objects exceeding $800,000 in the course of twenty-six years from the same devotee of science, seeking neither glory nor self-advertisement.

—Vol. XX. of the Jesuit Relations (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) contains four documents; the concluding chapters of the Relation for 1640, composed in the Huron country by Jerome Lalemant; a letter of Charles Garnier to his brother, also from the Hurons; some passages from a dispatch sent by Brébeuf to Vitelleschi, the general of the order; and the opening part of Le Jeune's Relation for 1641. Brébeuf wrote at Quebec, and Le Jeune began there but finished at Paris. The principal topics taken up in these several reports are, firstly, the trials endured by Garnier and Jogues on their new mission to the Tobacco Nation; secondly, the pious labors of the Ursulines at Quebec and of the Hospital nuns at Sillery; and thirdly, the condition of the church at Three Rivers. The country of the Tobacco Nation is reported to lie twelve or fifteen leagues westward from the Hurons, and the unwonted peace which then prevailed between the two tribes probably encouraged the Jesuits to include a district so closely neighboring within their field. Lalemant makes no secret of their failure to score any success further than the baptism of some dying fugitives belonging to the Neutral Nation, who had been driven from their own region by famine. For the rest, "this mission has been the richest of all, since the crosses and the sufferings have been most abundant therein." At Quebec the Jesuits were now reinforced by the Ursulines, who were the more welcome in that they could not become competitors. Unflagging zeal in the work is always affirmed of both orders. For instance, of the Ursulines, "their monastery contains more joy in its little enclosure than the palaces of the Cæsars in their great extent." The hospital was an endowment of the Duchesse d'Aiguillon. In it the savages were purged, bled, and nursed. Sometimes they were given medicine to carry home with them. Altogether about 150 patients had been treated in the year besides those who received simple alms. Chapter VII. of Le Jeune's Relation for 1641 is devoted to "the Residence of la Conception at the Three Rivers." Three Rivers was the gathering-place of all the Indian races who traded with the French, and the fathers stationed there, Jacques Buteux and Jean de Quen, seem to have been discouraged by the spectacle of their meetings and of their influence upon each other. This section of the narrative is largely anecdotal, and gives one reason to think that the Jesuits missed a chance in not directing their attention more closely to such a point of focus.

—Mr. Robert Gregg Bury's edition of the 'Philebus' (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan) is a very respectable but somewhat colorless performance. The text is soberly eclectic, based mainly on Hermann-Wohlrab. The grammatical notes generally supply the needed help over rough places, and a fair measure of illustration of Platonic idiom and usage. The philosophic introduction consists chiefly of a mechanical analysis and tabulation of the leading ideas and technical terms of the dialogue—Pleasure, Science, Being, the Mixed, the Unmixed, etc. Mr. Bury faithfully reports on the recent literature of the subject, attributing, as is natural, much importance to the neo-Platonic mysticism of his Cambridge teachers. The method he has learned from them of combining and equating philosophic terms and categories like rigid counters is incompatible with any real insight into Plato's thought. It may be edifying, but it certainly is not Platonic philology, to say that the soul of the universe "is the Divine will in which Love and Reason meet together." In the endeavor to extract from the text what "is not explicitly conveyed therein," Mr. Bury sometimes resorts to strange arguments. He cites 24 A to prove that the ἄπειρον is a kind of multiety, and 26 D for the identification of the πέρας with τὸ ἕν. But the unity of πέρας in 26 D, as Mr. Bury must know, is precisely on a par with that of the ἄπειρον—it is simply the unity of any generic idea in relation to the multiplicity of its sub-species.

—The text of the 'Republic' of Plato is, for all practical purposes, fixed, and Mr. James Adam's convenient little critical edition (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan) can in the nature of things offer little that is new and nothing of serious significance. Mr. Adam's canons for the constitution of the text are: (1) to follow A wherever possible; (2) when A is deserted, to state the reading of A and the source of the reading adopted; (3) in default of A to rely chiefly on Π, Ξ and q, and v, and where Π or Ξ and q alone or with others give the right reading, to ignore the minor manuscripts. The emendations admitted, with the exception of the four or five classical and universally adopted instances, affect at the most grammatical concinnity or the turn of phrase. Of such emendations the editor himself contributes some thirty-five turning on the insertion or the omission of an article or preposition, or the pruning away of what he chooses to regard as a redundancy, or the correction of what the manuals of rhetoric might treat as an inaccuracy of expression. A typical example is found in 598 C, where Plato, after enumerating the painter, the cobbler, and the carpenter, goes on to speak of the man who is unacquainted with *these arts* (τεχνῶν). Mr. Adam corrects *arts* to artisans—τεχν(ιτ)ῶν. The instructor in daily themes would undoubtedly approve.

—The educational head of Prussia, the Cultus Minister, Dr. Bosse, in an address to the Parliament, recently made what is probably the first official utterance of the Prussian Government on the question of girls' gymnasia and the higher education of women in general. A petition from Breslau, asking for permission to establish, in connection with a famous school of that place, a

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complete girls' college that would lead up to an examination admitting to the universities exactly on a plane with the present *Abiturienten-Examen*, was refused the sanction and approval of the Cultus Ministry, the vote being unanimous in all three sections of that department. This led to an appeal in Parliament, in response to which Dr. Bosse replied, in substance, that the Ministry was disposed to meet the actual needs of the sex for enlarged fields of employment, and that girls were now given an opportunity to attend university lectures with the consent of the professor and the Rector. All the portals of science are open to women. An exceedingly small minority of them desire to pass the examination admitting to the universities, and this has been permitted them, but not in regular course *(als Extraner)*. In the department of mathematics one lady has taken the degree of doctor; and if there are women who have the physical and intellectual and moral strength to accomplish all that is necessary to secure a medical degree, the Ministry will put no obstacle in their way. In Breslau, however, it is the purpose to coax *(hereinlocken)* twelve-year-old children into taking a college course, and this project must be opposed. At such an age neither the girls themselves nor their parents are in a position to decide whether the former are capable of entering one of the professions. Such an innovation would undermine our whole present system of educating girls. During the year 1895-'96 there were only eight girls in all Prussia who tried to pass the gymnasium examinations; in 1896-'97 only six, of whom two failed; and in the spring of the present year only five. And not even all of these twenty-three were from Prussia, and all had been prepared privately. The great majority of young girls expect to marry, and the Government must deal with the rule and not with the exception. This shows that Prussia in exceptional cases will admit women to university lectures, but will do nothing to prepare them for entrance. The graduates of the three Mädchengymnasien in Germany, at Carlsruhe, Berlin, and Leipzig, must take their chances with the rest.

CHILD'S BALLADS.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part X. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

In these days of advertisement and syndicates, of visits to the author's study, of photographs, of private chat for public use, when even the harmless necessary scholar is forced to an interview and must talk discreetly of the stir in Sanskrit, friends of a man like the late Prof. Child might well choose *Cordelia's* part of loving silence. Certainly one would rather say nothing about him and about his work than run the risk of falling into that brazen clash of superlatives with which persons eminent in any degree must now be hailed by an appreciative public. Shall one write of the great teacher? What is a great teacher? "Provided a decent sum of money," asked a trustee who took counsel with the flesh and blood of a certain citizen, "how is this decrepit college to be built up?" "Cut out your dead wood," answered the citizen, who loved his metaphor, "and call live men to the chairs—men who are talked about, big men in big colleges—so that they will leave a luminous trail as they go from the old place to the new." It is an easy formula; and the reporter, along with that mob of honest folk who shape their judgment by what newspapers say, has made it valid almost to the exclusion of other standards. Your great man, even your great teacher, is the man with a luminous trail; convergent luminous trails make a great institution. Now, however his old students may feel in regard to the teaching of Mr. Child—his relentless accuracy combined with literary tact; the might of learning masked behind the grace of letters, along with a kindliness and a humor without bounds; his precept and example to the learner that, whatever Paracelsus says about the dilemma, in literature at least one may both know and love—they are nevertheless sadly put to it when this test of a luminous trail comes canting in, and they boggle outright at the thought of what a reporter would have said. The reporter and his public like their great men as revealed in a sonorous commonplace; and if there was anything from which Mr. Child was utterly removed, it was the sonorous commonplace. "Burke," said the popular lecturer, when note-books were well adjusted, "Burke was a master-mind. . . ." "The reason why one comes to like Chaucer better than Spenser," said Mr. Child, in his cheery, conversational way, to a certain class many years ago, "is that Chaucer always has his feet on the ground, while Spenser—ah, well, you know, Spenser is one of our greatest poets . . ." "What did he say?" gasped the man who made a point of accurate notes.

Will it do, then, to tell the reporter that Prof. Child was a great scholar? Although the public has reluctantly abandoned that fond old test of speaking fluently nineteen languages, reading forty-three with ease, and possessing an intimate acquaintance with many savage dialects, men still feel that some divinity of the sort, something cryptic, ought to hedge the scholar. There was nothing of this about Mr. Child. His great collection of ballads, for example, is shamelessly plain; the greater part of it can be read and enjoyed by the layman. How is one to bring home, not to the scholar, who knows its worth, but to an ordinary reader, the great significance of this book for our American scholarship? Indeed, could one compass it, there were no better task, regarded simply as service to the state, than such a straightforward account of what Mr. Child really was, and what he did, both for academic ideals and for human knowledge, as should put the reporter and his public upon a revision of their standards of greatness. Accounts of Mr. Child have been written by competent hands, but have hardly reached the reporter. Meanwhile, and for the present purpose, it is enough to consider these 'Ballads'—the most important contribution that he has given to learning—and to find some basis for the assertion, made on both sides of the sea, that the work belongs to that extremely rare class known as permanent.

As a comparatively young man, Prof. Child had already done some of this permanent work in his 'Observations on the Language of Chaucer,' and he did it with quite inadequate materials. He had a rare and accurate judgment of proportion, so that he neither set himself impossible tasks, nor yet was deceived by the false appearance of impossibility. It is worthy of note that, in his early work, the edition of Spenser, the studies in Chaucer and Gower, he showed remarkable skill of insight and combination, so as to win wide results from very narrow material; while later, in the collection and comparison of ballads, when confronted with almost boundless material, he developed quite as valuable an art in his powers of selection and control.

The publication of the 'Ballads' was begun in 1882—for the collection of 1857-58 must count as an altogether separate work, not as an earlier edition—and now comes to an end with the tenth part, completing the fifth volume. New title-pages are provided for the earlier volumes, and there is an excellent portrait of Mr. Child from Kruell's graver. This final part contains, besides a few pages of additions and corrections for particular ballads, a glossary to the whole collection, a list of sources of the various texts, an index of published airs (with an appendix of unpublished tunes), an index of ballad-titles, an index of books of ballads, an "index of matters and literature," typographical corrections, and a bibliography. With the exception of this bibliography, mainly the work of Miss Ireland, all save the general introduction, of which "a few pages of manuscript—the last thing written by his pen—almost illegible, were found among his papers," and the bibliography, begun under his own direction and carried out upon his own plan, was prepared for the press by Prof. Child himself; and the entire part has been printed under the care of his scholar, friend, and successor, Prof. G. L. Kittredge, who gives a brief but wholly satisfactory biographical sketch, but adds nothing beyond such corrections and notes as had been welcomed and published at every stage of the collection. Mr. Child—happier in all this than his friend the illustrious Grundtvig, whose great collection of Danish ballads furnished the plan for the present work—has done all that he promised in his announcement sixteen years ago, and has done it, moreover, in spite of conditions of health which would have put many a man out of the struggle. Including additions and corrections, but excluding indexes, the work as a whole comprises 2,376 pages, in double columns, of text and comment. In 1894, as Prof. Kittredge points out, the editor could "report that the 305 numbers of his collection comprised the whole extant mass of this traditional material, with the possible exception of a single ballad." Had he done nothing more than this, simply gathering from far and near every scrap of genuine traditional poetry of English or Scottish origin, Mr. Child would have taken high rank among those rare scholars whose powers of research, added to critical tact and discernment, have enabled them to save precious literature from destruction. The bagmen of letters run busily about, now with cheap, new, showy goods, now with sound old stuffs; but there is an Indiaman come bravely to port, with wares far-fetched by daring and skill, wares that are made no more and must be bought for a great price.

Yet this is the smaller part of the work. It is well known that Mr. Child's comparative and historical researches go beyond those of any other scholar in the field. In the compass of a few pages will often be found erudition to furnish forth an armada of ordinary monographs. See, for example, the discussion of Bugge's theory of "Lady Isabel and

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the Elf-Knight," and the elaborate, final settlement of Robin Hood's claims upon history and myth. Nothing eludes Mr. Child; no source of information is too remote or too difficult, no chaff too forbidding for him to find the grains of wheat; yet there is no wailing, as of Carlyle, over the "dust-heaps," no ostentation of effort. Moreover, even the most careless reader must be attracted by the delightful way in which the editor imparts the results of his labor. A touch here and there of literary allusion; modern instances, whenever the subject can be redeemed from mere antiquarian interest; the personal note, as in that outburst against sentimental and mawkish pity for tramps, "those terrors of our rural districts"; and everywhere the saving gift of humor. What Dryden is reported to have said, in an often quoted phrase, about the poems of Chaucer, may well serve as grace for the student who sits down to these introductions to the various ballads: "Here is God's plenty." Moreover, when Mr. Child, writing of a well-known ceremonial test in which maids and lighted candles play the chief part, just drops that line about an "exsufflicate and blown surmise," and goes swiftly on his scientific way; when, gravely summarizing an extravagant theory, he gives as comment the opinion of his favorite poet that "glosing is a full glorious thing"; when he speaks of the "great moral effort" made under trying circumstances by a certain knight; when he casts about for a phrase to express his notion of a broadside version (F) of "The Broomfield Hill," and, with a felicity beyond praise, decides that it has a "pungent buckishness," that while "A smells of the broom, F suggests the groom"—whenever, in brief, these touches of humor fall upon his graver work, it is well to know that the allusion, the quip are spontaneous. And how clear, how strong is his style! If only the young lions of research could learn the lesson that one's tale of good philology need not be noted for one's bad and barren English in the telling of it! If Mr. Child perfected his method of work in Germany, and brought away that tradition of thoroughness which has made German philology so rich in permanent results, he was enough the man of letters to love and cultivate those graces which one is wont to associate with the best scholarship of England, and he was enough himself neither to affect a school nor to give his students the impression that any parochial restrictions fettered his range in the world of learning. In his study of traditional poetry he lost not a jot of the life and movement of these ballads; he kept always in view whatever they had of charm and humor and pathos; but he never swerved a hair's breadth from the dignity and severity of research.

It is as useless to point out the excellence of details as it is to move heaven and earth in the search for a possible error or omission. But it may be noted that this book should now serve as a basis for studies in custom, superstition, turn of thought or of phrase; and that the reckoning can be regarded as final, so far as English and Scottish ballads are concerned. The collecting of them is a closed account. Moreover, conjectural emendations are in order—for Mr. Child was properly chary of such suggestion—and the preparation of a single, normal text out of the varying versions of a given ballad.

It was the third part of his task that Mr. Child, as we have seen, did not live to accomplish. The collection of individual ballads, the history and comparison are there; but there is no general introduction* in which this master of method sums up the texts, the origins, the conditions, the limitations, the migrations, the stylistic and metrical characteristics of the ballad in general. In regard to this task he felt a certain dread, and expressed it with his usual frankness.† Wont with unerring skill to trace the single ballad and to follow every hint of its relationship to other ballads, to other groups, he went so far as to doubt his own power to draw general conclusions and to discuss the more or less vague questions which arise when one faces the ballad as a fact in general literature. Yet this introduction, had he been spared to write it, would have made an epoch in ballad criticism. He knew, as no one else could know, the snares that lie in wait for the student of traditional literature; if ever the vanity of dogmatizing comes to test, it is here; and he had no mind, in Brunetière's phrase, to "éterniser les problèmes," to hunt rather for the sake of the exercise than for the sake of the game. Had he merely trodden the perilous ways and cleared the overgrown path, what light would have pierced at least a part of that darkness! What, for example, if he had but written an account of the migration of ballads, if he had essayed a permanent classification, if he had given in detail his notion of the tests and conditions which set off the narrative ballad of tradition, not only from the folk-song, not only from the imitated ballad, but from the whole mass of popular poetry! What, too, if he could have given some general hints about the particular skill with which he sunders false pathos from true, the flush of health in a traditional ballad from the rouge of imitation! With his unerring tact, what could he not have done for the drawing of that perilous line which should mark off the vulgar broadside from a broadside which is true ballad at the heart! How straight he goes to the mark in his judgment of that "infectious" ballad, "Bewick and Graham"; and how the dignity and pathos of it rise from the shabby lendings of the broadside version:

"Father, could ye not drunk your wine at home,
And letten me and my brother be?"‡

This unrivalled knowledge of the ballad itself, this intimacy with it—"Do I like 'Stephen'?" he echoed once the question of the reviewer; "I go singing it all over the house!"—one can now find only in *obiter dicta*. Had the introduction been written as an outgrowth of the labors involved in collecting and comparing, it would have put the science of ballad criticism upon a foundation solid and sure.

The death of Prof. Child came home to his old scholars with a force in every way unusual. He had in him that generosity of manliness, that pathetic resolve not only to see the best in every one, but still to see this best round unspeakable corners of mistake and failure. He would still praise wherever honest praise was in any degree possible. He would neither give nor take conventional wares. "Your classmate ——," he was once told, "asked to be remembered to you." "Did —— say that? Give him my love," came the composed reply. Were all the acts of kindness, done at the cost of his own precious time, which Mr. Child bestowed upon comparative strangers, upon scholars, or indeed upon any bairn of knowledge whom he could help to put on the right way—were these all to be set up for a record, what a monument of disinterested affection would be there, both for the cause of learning and for the welfare of his fellows! Applied to him, the famous saying sounds as little extravagant as it did when it came from the lips of Lessing, a man in some respects of kindred breed with Mr. Child, a kindly man, full of good loves and hates, a keen, wise, tolerant, sympathetic man, who cried out when he heard of the death of Winckelmann: "There goes the second man within a year or two of whom I can say that to prolong his life I would willingly have given something of my own." That has an unreal ring in these days; but it was not unreal as the utterance of Lessing, and it could be said in honesty by some of the old students of Prof. Child.

*The prospectus of 1882 says that "a general introduction will be prefixed to the first volume."

†The summary of facts about the ballad which he drew up for 'Johnson's Cyclopædia' must not be regarded as indicating the character of the projected introduction.

‡For Mr. Child's criticism of rejection and of appreciation the reader might consult respectively the discussion of Version D in "Captain Car" and the praise of stanzas 9, 10, in the shorter version of "Sir Patrick Spens." A study of Mr. Child's critical treatment of style and matter in the ballad would be a welcome piece of work.

ENGLISH CATHEDRALS.

Bell's Cathedral Series. Edited by Gleeson White and Edward F. Strange. Volumes I.-VI. Canterbury, Chester, Salisbury, Rochester, Oxford, and Exeter. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.

This series of handbooks, which is intended to include twenty-four separate volumes at least, is marked by the peculiarity of being filled with photographic illustrations, some from drawings, but the greater number from the buildings themselves, many of which are of the full size of the page. These illustrations are especially numerous for the details of the buildings, as is, perhaps, best. The visitor to Canterbury or Exeter would hardly fail to buy two or three photographs of the exterior of the cathedral, whereas the details of the interior and even the projecting angles and the less important recesses of the outside would be not so easy for him to find among the photographs in the shops. The half-tone pictures are of varying merit; many of them as good as could reasonably be asked. The illustrations in line are not as numerous as they might have been, but what are given are appropriate and are of assistance to the text. The volume on Salisbury is less richly illustrated than some, containing a greater number of reproductions of prints and the like and fewer photographs of detail. Of Oxford, on the other hand, a cathedral much less known than is fitting, both half-tones and line cuts are freely given, and this volume is one of the most interesting in the matter of illustration. The plans are confined to general ground-plans, one to each volume, except as a restored or conjectural ancient plan is added, and there are no large-scale plans of parts of a church so arranged as to explain more fully the photographic pictures. On the other hand, plans of recent excavations and consequent discoveries have been introduced, as noticeably in the volume on Oxford.

It is not, however, only for the student on the spot that these books are prepared; they appeal with at least equal force to the reader in a distant land. In fact, it is rather the mark of the series that buildings are

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described and their history given at length than that they are commented on as by a wise guide accompanying the student through the building. There is no reason to doubt that in this the interest of the greater number of buyers and readers has been consulted. Few are they who spend time enough in and about a cathedral to use aright a volume of 120 pages bearing upon it, and those few are apt to require the historical facts, the dates and the approximate dates rather than guidance in the examination of the buildings. Care has been taken to make the different books nearly uniform in treatment, and this even to the extent of keeping the division into four parts, often marked by a similar division into four chapters, viz.: the history of the building, the exterior of the building itself, its interior, and the history of the see. This, however, does not prevent considerable diversity in the character and quality of the writing.

The volume devoted to Canterbury, by Mr. Hartley Withers, has but little to say about the architecture. Even the chapter descriptive of the exterior and the precincts and that concerning the interior of the cathedral contain much more history than they do analysis or description of the building or of any of its parts. The architectural information in this volume is furnished mainly by the very good series of plans. These are three in number; the plan of the present church, cloisters, chapter-house, library, etc., with numerous references, being accompanied by a very well-imagined restoration of the plan as it was in 1174, and one of the Saxon cathedral, as conjectured by Prof. Willis. By an odd mistake the second plan is lettered 1774, and no erratum notice appears. This volume is well adapted to give the patient and studious visitor to the cathedral precincts a living interest in the foundation and its immense influence in the development of the English people.

The handbook on Salisbury is anonymous. Somewhat more attention is paid in it to the details of the architecture. The difficulty already referred to, of deciding between the claims of visitors and of students at a distance, is here got over by yielding everything to the latter class. Details are described as for one who has not seen them, and are hardly pointed out or alluded to as if in explanation to one who is looking at them. The plan of this cathedral is given on as large a scale as one page allows, and is, perhaps, sufficient, but there is no plan of the close, nor is even the whole cloister given.

The book devoted to Oxford and prepared by the Rev. Percy Dearmer is far more minute in its examination of the building. The unusual character of this smallest of English cathedrals in its double capacity of college chapel and cathedral church, and its unusual plan and situation, short and square and crowded in between the cloisters of the academic buildings, have, in a sense, called for this fuller treatment. It is, however, in the highest degree fortunate that the writer was prepared for the unusual task set him. The absent student may obtain from this little book a really excellent idea of the cathedral and its architectural peculiarities, the changes it has undergone, and its relative importance as a piece of English mediæval architecture; and the visitor to Oxford may follow it, page after page, in his examination of the most interesting little church. The quotations from other writers are peculiar; for while the handbooks on Canterbury and Salisbury contain most useless records of what writers of the last century, wholly ignorant of Gothic art, or mere gossiping travellers have had to say, the principal quotations in Mr. Dearmer's book on Oxford are taken from Mr. Park Harrison, a very competent and most earnest and indefatigable archæologist.

The volume on Rochester, by Mr. G. H. Palmer, is noticeably intelligent in its treatment of that curious edifice, so unattractive and even mean in its first impression on the beholder, and containing so much really curious architecture. The interior of the Norman nave rightly excites the interest of the author, and we can trace in the pages of his chapter on the history of the cathedral his guarded approval of the restorations which have in late years made the west front less insignificant; restorations which were perfectly justified in view of the very late date and very corrupt style in which its character had been fixed.

The book on Exeter, by Percy Addleshaw, adds to the regular list of chapters as given above an additional chapter on the tombs in the choir. There is not as much said about their artistic character as the reader might hope for, but this is to be taken as evidence that, in the present volume, at least, the needs of the visitor have been thought the most pressing. The architectural account of the cathedral is more close and more in the way of description than the same part in some of the other handbooks. There is added a separate chapter on the curious guildhall of Exeter town and on the ruins of Rougemont Castle.

Chester, by Charles Hiatt, is the work of a man of judgment, accustomed to weigh carefully the relative value of architectural styles, details of decoration, and the various elements of architectural beauty. The relations of the small and unpretending cathedral to the singularly picturesque town rich in mediæval and Elizabethan architecture, which, though restored almost out of recognition, is picturesque and interesting still, are all perfectly well maintained and insisted on in the text. An additional chapter is devoted to the conventual buildings, and there is a brief account of the former Cathedral of St. John.

The history of the cathedral which in each volume is contained in the first chapter is invariably a narrative of the progress and social development of one little piece of old England. The narrow boundaries of such a realm make possible the treatment which these diocesan records have received. The fact that each chronicler had a great and even an exaggerated notion of the importance to the world of his little piece of history makes that piece of history, as told by him, more entertaining and more useful, nor can we sympathize with that student of history who dislikes these annals of the little affairs of one ecclesiastical establishment and its small town. The history of the diocese, especially so called, which forms the final chapter of each volume, is rather a record of the bishops and their special character and achievements than a general chronicle.

Unforeseen Tendencies of Democracy. By Edwin L. Godkin. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1898.

As its title indicates, this volume is principally devoted to the examination of such tendencies in modern democracies as are not recognized in what Mr. Bagehot would have called the "literary" theory of popular government. This examination, however, is so thorough as to constitute a sketch or outline of the science of politics. It does not comprehend politics as an art, or body of precepts, and the attitude of the author throughout is that of a political philosopher who aims chiefly to record the results of experience. Nothing would have been easier than to point morals and prescribe regimens, but the scientific attitude is consistently maintained, with the result, as we have said, of bringing out the fundamental principles of modern politics.

One of the most important of these principles is that democracies of large size do not demand rulers of ability, at least of statesmanlike ability. The "bosses" to whom these democracies commit their destinies have doubtless much ability of a certain kind. They are undeniably skilful organizers of party forces; they know how to secure the fidelity of a host of petty managers, who can control delegates and manipulate conventions. But they do not even pretend to have any conception of the larger ends of government, or any acquaintance with the lessons of history. They are content if they are able to control appointments to office, and to dictate such legislative measures as are desired by the interests with which they are identified; and the masses are apparently content with such leadership. To use Mr. Godkin's words:

"It must be admitted, even by its warmest admirers, that democracy is not very teachable by philosophers and jurists. . . . Every democracy, too, is weighted by the fact that its new agents are rarely men familiar with public affairs, or with human trials in matters of government. Those of its advisers who are familiar with such things are apt to be hostile or distrustful, and are therefore not listened to with confidence or attention."

While the management of the incapable rulers of democracy is bad and corrupt, the author concedes that the rapid increase of wealth and the sudden development of urban civilization have given democracy problems to solve which the most famous oligarchies never encountered. It would be pessimistic to maintain that democracy cannot solve these problems in time, but the mistake of optimists consists in not allowing time enough; in "thinking that there are short cuts to political happiness." Men must learn by experience, and it is at least conceivable that, after a sufficiently prolonged experience, the common people may recognize the advantages of committing public affairs to statesmen, in which event democracy may succeed as well as any other form of government. At present these advantages are not understood, and the chapter on "The Decline of Legislatures" illustrates very instructively the results of this ignorance. On the other hand, the progress of civil-service reform indicates that the people are not indisposed to correct abuses when the manner of doing so is made plain to them.

The first paper is devoted to a review of the democracies of the past in contrast with our own polity, which traces its ancestry back to Greece and Rome. It would seem from this chapter that the rise of democracy is an inevitable result of the diffusion of intelligence. So soon as the masses of the people are able to take an interest in the conduct of government, they will insist on

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having a part in it, and the existence of a cheap press is incompatible with the prestige required by aristocracy. As Mr. Bagehot said, the English people were a "deferential" people, and thus the ruling class kept its power; but this country is not now a deferential country. The consequences of this different attitude of our people are worked out in the chapter on "The Growth and Expression of Public Opinion." Attention is called to the necessity of defining how public opinion is to be ascertained, which is only through the ballot or through the newspaper. The ballot, taken only at long intervals and under conditions which obscure the political issues—too numerous to be generally comprehended—is an extremely clumsy and imperfect test of public opinion. A hundred voters may cast the same ballot, but they may have a hundred different reasons for doing so. On the other hand, the day is past when editors anxiously sought to express the political views of their readers, and when many readers took their political creed from one editor. The editors now seek to please advertisers, and readers take many papers, getting but a flabby faith out of them. In fact, most readers are so incapable of or so averse to sustained attention as to be incompetent to form a really intelligent opinion on a question of public policy. But of course neither readers nor editors are apt to acknowledge their imbecility, and the follies of government are the natural result of uneducated public opinion.

The chapters on "The Nominating System" and "American Municipal Government" contain much that is lacking in our systematic treatises of politics. The primary meeting, or caucus, has come to assume "the air of a scheme or device on which the republic rests." Yet it is a novelty, and not necessarily a part of the democratic scheme of government. No one seems to have foreseen or predicted this development of the nominating system, to which we are now so accustomed that we cannot imagine how it could be dispensed with. The abuses which have arisen from it are set forth with much particularity by Mr. Godkin. There is at present no sign of their decrease; but no improvement in government is to be looked for until they are abated. In fact, if they continue, they will change the structure of our government. These abuses have become most flagrant in the large cities, the rulers of which have been selected with reference to their standing in the Federal parties, not to their qualifications as municipal administrators. Here, however, there are signs of growing political intelligence. The number of citizens who ignored party ties and voted for Mr. Low at the last election in New York city was, in view of all the circumstances, encouragingly large. When a generation of voters has been trained to the conception that the administration of cities has nothing to do with the policy of the Federal Government, such movements as that in favor of Mr. Low may end the power of the politicians. But as it is necessary to overthrow them also in the State Legislatures, the struggle will be a fierce one. The plunder of a rich city will not be relinquished merely because the inhabitants of the city demand it. The struggle, however, is sure to come, and those who wish to prepare for it will find in these essays such information as to its conditions as will enable them to fight not as men beating the air.

The Poems of Shakespeare. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by George Wyndham. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

In his edition of Shakspere's poems, Mr. Wyndham has, for aught we can see, produced a book which all students of Shakspere must possess, and in which readers for pleasure will take great satisfaction. Not that the editor's work is faultless. On the contrary, being in several respects very ill-equipped for his task, he often disappoints or exasperates, according as, with visible labor, he either fails to illuminate an obscure place or darkens a line which was clear before he touched it. Yet, despite much unevenness and superficiality, he offers so much that is good, and comports himself in so mannerly a fashion, that one finds it impossible not to approve in the main, however one many condemn in detail. Probably, Mr. Wyndham himself would be the last to claim for his editorial work finality, if such a thing is conceivable, or even an approach to finality. It is enough for him, and will be enough for his readers, that he has made an edition of Shakspere's poems superior in some ways to any that has yet appeared. The total amount of his original contributions may not be large, when all that is wrong, or even all that appears perverse, has been eliminated from the total mass of the notes. Yet something remains—enough, we think, to insure the book an indulgent reception from candid scholars.

Mr. Wyndham's introduction is elaborate, extending to almost a hundred and fifty pages, and it is certainly good reading. Its main purpose, we take it, is to make good the distinction between a poem itself and the actual experience or observation of the poet out of which the poem grew or upon which it was founded. He insists strongly on the axiom that the study of a poem and the study of a poet's autobiography are distinct things; that the poem is valuable not because of the personal experience which it contains, but rather by virtue of the imaginative quality "superadded by the poet." There is nothing new in all this, nor is Mr. Wyndham very clear in his treatment of the subject or entirely consistent in applying his own principles. Yet the discussion is surely worth while. It is exemplary to hear an appreciative and eloquent critic, well acquainted with the details of the investigation, proclaim vigorously that, whatever one may find in Shakspere's sonnets, the least valuable product that can be extracted from them is the autobiographical element. We could even wish that Mr. Wyndham had gone a step farther—that, in fact, he had proceeded from his disinclination to look at the sonnets merely as historical documents, to a more complete scepticism as to their trustworthiness in precisely that regard. That the step would not have been a long one we must admit, unless we forget that the author of these poems was the greatest of dramatists. And the biographical constructors have had their own way for so long that it is highly important for some protestant to make his voice heard (even if it be a *vox clamantis*). How slight, after all, is the evidential foundation in comparison with the structure which it is made to bear! Mr. Wyndham, we fancy, was very near taking the position which we have just described, if he had not been overborne by the authority of his predecessors. This will account for a certain indecision and incompleteness in his views. Yet he has done good service in prompting us to remember that the subjects of Shakspere's sonnets are, in essence, love, beauty, death, immortality, and the like, rather than dark ladies and debauched lords.

Apart from these more serious considerations, the introduction is undeniably entertaining. The sketch of Shakspere's life, of his social and literary environment, and of the manners of his time, is lively and interesting. The author has read widely and attentively, and he has a distinct cleverness in setting forth such things. To be sure, we cannot always vouch for his accuracy. His account of the "war of the theatres," for example, would hardly satisfy a critical historian of Elizabethan Literature. Still, if one can overlook details and read the introduction simply for general impressions, there is much to commend. It would be hard to find a piece of modern essay writing in which certain aspects of the Elizabethan age are so felicitously set forth. To find faults in it would be easy—too easy to be worth doing—and the faults when found would not essentially interfere with one's appreciation of its peculiar merits. Rambling, incomplete, "precious," naïve, inaccurate, out of proportion, are all epithets that a harsh critic might use and justify; but none of them would, after all, touch the point. The introduction embodies certain ideas which need just now to be emphasized in the criticism of Shakspere's poetry as opposed to that of his dramas. And it embodies these ideas in a form which will, as we think, inevitably give them a considerable currency.

Of Mr. Wyndham's notes it is impossible to speak adequately in our brief compass. He has taken great pains with them and has done his best. The scholar will find in them not only, as we have indicated, a few observations of importance, but also a vast amount of useless and mistaken comment, and a deal of amusing pedantry. Much of this pedantry is of that diverting kind which one always expects when a literary critic, untrained in the niceties of a technical scholarship, undertakes to play the dryasdust. The many quotations from Minsheu's well-known dictionary and the long extracts from Guillim's 'Heraldry,' as well as the pitiless discussions on the significance of capital letters, may serve to illustrate our meaning. The technical scholar, however much of a pedant, could never have shown so much pedantry on these points as is exhibited by Mr. Wyndham, whose general tendencies are not pedantic at all. We have made many notes of his errors and absurdities, but these we cheerfully withhold. Some of them, to be sure, are grotesque enough, and some are hardly excusable even in a dilettante. But it is fairer both to the author and to our readers not to insist upon such matters in the case of a book which, despite some glaring faults, everybody who cares for Shakspere will welcome to his shelves.

The Story of the British Army. By Lieut.-Colonel C. Cooper King, F.G.S., with plans and illustrations. London: Methuen & Co. 8vo, pp. 423.

Col. King's book will be a convenient manual for the same purposes for which regimental histories are useful, but on a broader

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scale. It enables one to trace each regiment in the whole British army, in all its service. This is done by noting the designation of all regiments engaged in the campaigns and battles of which an outline is given. Supplementary tables give alphabetical lists of campaigns and battles since 1658, lists of regiments with former numbers and present titles, with order of precedence, their badges, mottoes, and nicknames. The text gives also the history of the changes in armor and weapons from the Norman Conquest downward, with the progress in battle tactics which necessarily accompanied the use of long-range weapons like the bow and cloth-yard shaft, and still more the musket and the rifle.

All this material is connected with an outline history of campaigns and battles in the four quarters of the globe, with appreciative estimates of the great soldiers who have become illustrious as leaders of the British hosts. Although the story must be brief to come within the compass of a single volume, it is judiciously expanded in the more important parts, especially when rapid change in arms or in tactics is going on, or when the strategy of a Marlborough or a Wellington is to be analyzed. The author has had a clear idea of his plan, which has been to fill a place in military literature really open to him; and while limiting himself to a brief treatment of history proper, he has had a keen eye to the favorite anecdotes or exploits of the regiments, so as not to lose the flavor of individuality in the larger treatment.

Colonel King has also shown independence of judgment in his estimates of men, which one is not apt to look for in connection with soldiers' *esprit de corps* when telling the deeds of the leaders of former generations. His handling of Wellington is a good example of this:

> "That the 'Iron Duke' had been uniformly, and on the whole extraordinarily, successful, is evident. That he never saw the greatest leaders until he met Napoleon at Waterloo, is equally so. It was for long, and is to some extent still, rank heresy to even criticise his actions. But whatever confidence he may have gained by his imperturbable coolness, he gained no man's regard. The rank and file trusted and believed in him to some extent; but there was not one soldier who would have died with his name on his lips, as many did for his far greater antagonist, Napoleon" (p. 244).

The Duke is credited with patience, perseverance, and sagacity, but not with great strategic insight. That he misconceived the campaign of Waterloo and was out-manœuvred by Napoleon is frankly admitted. In social life he neglected his old comrades, and "the circle in which he chiefly moved was that of fashionable ladies and gentlemen." If recognition of a brilliant feat of arms by a subordinate was likely to suggest criticism of his own management, he would ignore it in his reports, though it were as splendid as that of Norman Ramsay's battery at Fuentes de Oñoro, which Napier gives such a picture of. It reads strangely, too, when we are told that Wellington "was barely on speaking terms" with Picton at Quatre Bras—Picton, who was the hero of that fight, and who concealed the wound he got there only to fall dead when cheering on Kempt's brigade at Waterloo.

The author's literary work is curiously careless. He says of pre-historic men, that "families segregated together and became tribes" (p. 2). "They had at that time, like cavalry always have" (p. 21) is a locution to be avoided in this country, though we find it in Darwin, and General Gordon used it in his letters from Khartum. A funny ellipsis is that on p. 99: "He was no doubt a 'go-between' the Pretender in France and the few left faithful to him in the north." Other slips are the following: "There was little doubt in his mind but that no serious attack would be made" (p. 215); "Hardly had Wellington returned to England than the corps were disembodied" (p. 233); "No really free nation ever has or ever will accept the fetters" (p. 315); "Semi-civilized man with arms in his hand . . . are not content with looking at them" (p. 320). One rather enjoys the free-and-easy contempt for parts of speech and idioms.

The Bargain Theory of Wages. By John Davidson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1898.

The general aim of this treatise is to trace the modifications undergone by the theory of wages under the influence of a broader philanthropy. While it is not altogether true that wages are increased because people think that they ought to be, there is no doubt that the theory of wages may be affected by a livelier interest in the welfare of laborers. As Prof. Davidson shows, the earlier theory of wages was as applicable to the remuneration of slaves as to that of freemen; it was the result of a calculation of what was required, one year with another, to maintain in efficiency a certain number of laboring animals. Hence, Prof. Davidson describes it as a "subsistence theory." With the increased command of nature which marks this century, the remuneration of laborers came to be much more than mere subsistence. The subsistence theory became merely a theory of particular wages, while general wages were explained by the "wages-fund" doctrine. This doctrine Prof. Davidson describes as a theory of the demand for labor—the supply being regarded as fixed, and the laborer merely as the recipient of wages. In his view the theory "stands or falls according to the answer to the question whether the wages-fund is predeterminate and fixed." Into the merits of this vexed question we need not go; but Prof. Davidson states the arguments fairly enough.

What is termed the "Productivity of Labor Theory" was developed as a criticism of the doctrine of the wages-fund. One school has maintained that high wages are the result of efficient labor; the other, that high wages are the cause of efficient labor. According to the latter school it is only necessary to increase the reward of labor in order to increase the general wealth; the former believes in improving the laborer, in the expectation that he will become a greater wealth-producer. Here, too, Prof. Davidson brings out the implications of these theories with satisfactory clearness, and indeed sets them forth with a good deal of originality of statement. He apparently, however, attributes the prosperity following the adoption of free trade in England to the Factory acts; a not uncommon assumption, which lacks proof. The present condition of cotton manufacture in New England indicates that factory regulation does not insure prosperity. In stating what he calls the "Bargain Theory," Prof. Davidson admits that competition is one of the most important factors in determining wages, but lays stress on others, particularly the increase of knowledge among laborers which enables them to make better bargains. He is of the opinion that the practice of paying laborers employed by Government higher rates than they can obtain from private employers is likely to create a sentiment which will assist the laborer; but why the creation of a favored class supported at the expense of the people should have this result is not made clear. While some of Prof. Davidson's arguments are not convincing, his book is suggestive and deserves the attention of economists.

Speculum Perfectionis seu S. Francisci Assisiensis Legenda antiquissima, auctore Fratre Leone, nunc primum edidit Paul Sabatier. Paris: Fischbacher. 1898.

When the Bollandists were collecting materials for the life of St. Francis of Assisi in the *Acta Sanctorum*, they invited communications from all members of the great Franciscan order. They were rewarded with innumerable dissertations which proved to be of the least possible value, for those furnished by the Observantine branch of the order consisted almost exclusively of arguments concerning the Portiuncula indulgence, while the discussions of the Conventuals bore with similar unanimity on the tradition which represents St. Francis as still standing upright in his tomb under the great church of Assisi. The children of the humble *poverello* apparently had zeal only for that which made for their profit or glorification. It is not a little singular that it was reserved in our day for a Protestant pastor, M. Paul Sabatier, to revive public interest in the spiritual beauty and loveliness which distinguish St. Francis above all his comrades in the Menology, rendering his career the most perfect concrete expression of the teachings of Christ. It is some years since M. Sabatier's 'Vie de François d'Assise' deservedly attracted widespread attention by the earnestness and eloquence with which the author set forth the results of a profound study of all the accessible original sources of his theme. Since then he has devoted himself to further researches on the subject, and he now presents us, for the first time in print, with the 'Speculum Perfectionis,' an account of the saint by his devoted companion, confessor, and secretary, Brother Leo. An introduction of over two hundred pages, an appendix of special studies, and voluminous foot-notes show that all possible sources of information have been laboriously exhausted in the endeavor to throw light on the numerous intricate questions involved.

These questions have been in debate from the thirteenth to the nineteenth century. Although the Order was founded on poverty, charity, and love, it speedily became torn with dissensions of the most virulent character between those who represented the aspirations of the founder as expressed in the Rule, and those who saw in the organization a means of attaining ease and wealth and power. After internal struggles lasting for nearly two centuries, the Order divided into two branches—the Observantines and the Conventuals—hating each other with a bitterness almost incredible, and maintaining their rivalry to the present day. Until the schism was established and recognized, the worldly faction, for the most part, had control of the organization, and it desired to suppress the writings of the immediate disciples of the founder, whose accounts of his unworldliness accentuated the wide depar-

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ture that had already occurred from his precepts and example. The general chapter, held in 1266, accordingly ordered these early writings to be suppressed, and commissioned St. Bonaventura to compile a Life of St. Francis which should be accepted as official. Much valuable material thus was irretrievably destroyed, and what remains was preserved in secret and with difficulty. Portions of it have seen the light at various times, especially of late years, including a considerable part of the 'Speculum Perfectionis,' in a disjointed and fragmentary condition. M. Sabatier has therefore made a real contribution to the history of one of the most remarkable spiritual movements of the Middle Ages by identifying and printing the 'Speculum' for the first time in a complete shape, and accompanying it with ample elucidations. To all students of the period the volume is indispensable.

Norman's Universal Cambist. By John Henry Norman. London: Effingham Wilson. 1897.

This is a strange book by a strange writer. It has been said that the only really happy man is he who owns a hobby and spends all his time in riding it, and if this be so, Mr. Norman should be one of the happiest of human beings. Some years ago he professed to have discovered what he called the "unit-of-weight system" of calculating international exchanges, and, ever since, he has been publishing books containing masses of confused and undigested facts and figures which are supposed to be connected with this system. The reader may fail to see the connection, but he cannot fail to be impressed by Mr. Norman's statement that in writing such books he is "simply unveiling that which has been hidden from the mass of mankind." As additional excuses for his literary fecundity, he claims a "lengthened interest" in seamen, sailors, and travellers, and a desire that children should learn the system as easily as they learn geography. We have never come across seamen, sailors, or travellers who could, by any stretch of imagination, be considered likely to profit by such literature; and as for children, they might as well attempt the integral calculus or the poems of Bacchylides.

A few years since we had occasion to criticise a previous book of Mr. Norman's, in which he endeavored, in his incoherent manner, to display the manifold virtues of this "unit-of-weight system" and the method of quoting exchanges based thereon. We informed him that the method had been actually tried in the New York market in 1883, and had been given up, after a week's experience, "because it did not commend itself to those most largely interested in the matter." Mr. Norman reprints our remarks in italics, evidently believing that there must have been a wicked conspiracy on the part of the dealers in exchange to upset his dearly beloved theory. But in this he is entirely mistaken. On the contrary, there was at that time an influential movement in favor of quoting sterling exchange by a discount or premium on the bullion par, and a strong desire on the part of bankers that the change should succeed, and it was abandoned only because it was found inconvenient in practice. In the present book Mr. Norman admits that there are difficulties in his method, and in one passage (which must have been written during a period of temporary and unusual depression) he even goes so far as to say that "it is doubtful if there will be any immediate alteration in the world's present mode of working and quoting the exchanges." The present mode has been in existence for many generations, is perfectly intelligible to those whose business it is to understand it, and is made practically convenient by elaborate exchange tables. Mr. Norman's theory is, in a certain sense, more scientific, but its practical value depends upon changes in the customs of commercial nations which are not likely to be made.

Dynamic Idealism: An Elementary Course in the Metaphysics of Psychology. By Alfred H. Lloyd. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1898. 16mo, pp. 248.

Practical Idealism. By William De Witt Hyde. Macmillan Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 335.

It is pretty confident to preach such brand-new theory as Mr. Lloyd's, unpassed upon by any jury, as an "elementary course." Far be it from us to pronounce this or that general attitude in philosophy unsound, for nothing is established in that science as yet. The author of this little book at least makes his own position perfectly clear, and develops it with no feeble thought and with an unusual power of compact expression. Whoever succeeds in doing that, in the present unsettled state of opinion, renders a service to philosophy. Though the book shows many marks of digested study of other philosophers, the author does not attain to mastery of his idea. It masters him; it is his element; he fails to comprehend that other minds do not share in it. This fundamental idea is nothing new or rare. Outside the garden where philosophers converse, it is the common opinion. Namely, it is, that Doing is higher than either Being or Knowing, and necessarily includes them both. So axiomatic does this seem to Mr. Lloyd that he is capable of such assertions as this: "Science is never only for science's sake. Men have often appeared to think that science as a body of knowledge was its own end, but obviously to think so long is quite impossible." Now, as a matter of historical fact, real scientific men, in every age when science has been animated by a vital spark, have one and all pursued science for its own sake. Of a piece with that, is Mr. Lloyd's claiming the support of Aristotle, whose ἐνέργεια ψυχῆς is a development of Being, and not a mere Doing, and who might probably have said: "Doing is never for doing's sake. Obviously to think that it is so for long is quite impossible. Doing for doing's sake is what we call pastime; it cannot form the staple of life." Do not let us be understood as arguing the question; we only point out how immersed the author is in his own mental element.

This leading idea, taken in itself, is nothing but the usual Philistine apotheosis of brute force. It naturally allies itself with dualism, since an action is essentially an accident of two individual things. And accordingly we find that all philosophers who have adopted it have been given to abrupt distinctions between pairs of opposites—such as right and wrong—to the neglect of any gradation from one extreme to another. Yet the elaboration of the idea has by no means always been so homogeneous as to include a belief in the duality of body and soul. On the contrary, no philosophy ever appeared more satisfactory to the class of minds who are attracted to this idea, or was more thoroughly believed in by matter-of-fact respectability, than Stoicism, which moulded this principle into a system of the most wooden materialism. Stoicism, we can hardly doubt, has been secretly entertained by millions throughout the Christian era—at any rate, down to the introduction of ether and chloroform. Their conduct is not otherwise explicable.

But to-day we live in an age whose prevalent spirit is intensely idealistic, even verging upon the mystical; and in a forest it is impossible to look far over the general level of the tree-tops. And so, in this book, we find the deification of force clothing itself in a "Dynamic Idealism." It is a strange phrase, a wondrous seething snow. It accurately names an emulsion of philosophical opinions that one would not have believed could ever be worked up into so homogeneous, substantial, and inviting a mayonnaise as Mr. Lloyd has managed to compound. The philosophy in its entelechy is as far as possible from deserving the disparaging epithets we apply to its first principle. Not only will it not be affectioned by the philosophically unregenerate, but it may be doubted whether even the élite will be able to accommodate themselves to it.

New systems of idealism nowadays get patented in such swift succession that novelty's self has long ago worn out its novelty. But this little book, it must be confessed, has something of the interest of a novel; for the reader's curiosity becomes whetted to learn by what surprise Mr. Lloyd will bring about a marriage between Dynamism and Idealism. In the first place, in order to detach Action from its inherent bruteness and impart to it an intellectual character, he defines it as relation—not relation such as our minds confer at will, but relation in the very real fact itself. Undoubtedly an action is a pairing *in re* of two things. It must also be admitted that nothing has an intellectual character except relations. Some readers may suggest that those relations which are intellectual are not mere pairings, but rather mediations—that is to say, gatherings of threes, or, in Aristotle's language, syllogisms. Mr. Lloyd, however, does not notice this objection, and our purpose is only to sketch the contents of the book, not to criticise it. But, having thus described action as relation *in re*, or real pairedness, and having identified this pairedness with the mind, Mr. Lloyd seems to be as far from monism as ever; for are not the things paired one thing, and is not the pairing of them an accident over and above their matter? To avoid this result, Mr. Lloyd, as a second step, denies the separate existence of the correlates paired. According to him, nothing really exists but pure pairedness (his word is *relationship*) without any pairs of objects to be paired. That this doctrine must be classed as idealism is beyond dispute. Its upshot resembles Hegelianism. Here, then, is dynamic idealism. For all details we must recommend the reading of the volume, only copying the brief summary which the author prints over against his title-page: "Relationship among things is the criterion neither of a life nor of a mind that exists apart from the substance of the universe. It is, however, the criterion of substance itself, and as the central truth about things it bears this witness: *The universe itself lives; the universe itself thinks.*"

Calculated for the meridian of Chautauqua,

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Mr. Hyde's 'Practical Idealism' is a manual of wholesome sentiments forcibly put. "Its practical aim precludes the discussion of ultimate metaphysical problems." That is to say, it is not scientific. At the same time, it was requisite to strengthen the heart of the semi-student by making him feel that he is studying philosophy. The author says that "philosophy is . . . tempted to forsake her mission as . . . guide to noble living, for the . . . technical craft," etc. In short, readers are taught to believe that Aristotle's great conquest for speculative science, in separating it sharply from questions of conscience and the like, was a great mistake and ought forthwith to be surrendered. Precisely that defines the efforts of the philosophical reactionists of to-day. As far as science is concerned, every shot they fire will fall harmless to the ground. But what their effect may prove to be upon the life and morals of their adherents, will depend upon the wholesomeness of calling that scientific which is not scientific. Were "practical idealism" plainly to confess itself to be no more than good wholesome feeling, sanctioned by the experiences of millennia, its practical aspects might be far more satisfactory than any scientific, and therefore merely provisional, hypothesis could be.

To mingle the two—philosophy and practical wisdom—is to invite vagueness and confusion, such as we here see, where the conflicting logical principles of Mill, Jevons, Sigwart, Bradlee, are jumbled together, where calling pure sensation a "continuum" is said to mean precisely the same thing as calling it a "confusion," and where the reasoning of Socrates in the 'Gorgias' is held up to admiration. Some of his criticisms of psychologists and logicians will give more aid and comfort to those who wish to separate speculation and conduct than the author seems to be aware. We believe that, in the long run, it will be found dangerous to teach Chautauquans that they are to "guide their conduct" by what may recommend itself to them as philosophy.

From Tonkin to India, by the Sources of the Irawadi, January, '95-January, '96. By Prince Henri d'Orléans. Translated by H. Bent. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. Map. Pp. xii, 467. Large 8vo.

Recent events have given a timely interest to this attractive book. The region of which it treats is one of the three provinces which France, in her latest demands upon the Chinese Government, claims should be regarded as exclusively under her influence. But not only are English interests in Yunnan more important than those of the French, England has done vastly more to develop commercial intercourse between Burma, India, and Yunnan than France has between Tonkin and this province. The Burma railway, for instance, has nearly reached the frontier, while France still only contemplates building one. As the possession of Yunnan is therefore not unlikely to prove a bone of contention between the two nations in the not distant future, Prince Henry's account of a part of the disputed region, its resources, and the character of its inhabitants has a distinct value apart from its geographical and scientific interest, which indeed is not slight, for out of the two thousand miles which he travelled, fifteen hundred were through entirely new country.

His main object was to complete the exploration of the Mekong by tracing its course from the northern boundary of Laos to the Tibetan frontier. In this he was only partially successful, for though he ascended the right bank for nearly six hundred miles, it was at such a distance from the river that its precise course is still uncertain. He found it to be a mountain torrent on a grand scale, and impracticable for navigation. The country was divided by numerous high ridges, each with its stream, making progress excessively difficult. "We changed valleys every day, and were continually ascending and descending" by mere mountain paths, and crossing the streams by fords or perilous bamboo bridges or cables. The inhabitants were few in number, consisting of small mutually hostile tribes and speaking a strange variety of tongues. On one occasion, as his little party were seated around the camp-fire, he found that they "were trying mutually to converse in nine different languages," Chinese, Tibetan, Mosso, Lissu, Lutse, Thai, Singpho, Mishmi, and Hindu. He had little opportunity for exploration, so that beyond the general features of the country traversed and a few facts in regard to the people, he adds little to our knowledge of it. In its present condition, however, it is evidently worthless as a market for French or English goods, while of mineral wealth there are few indications.

On reaching the Tibetan boundary, Prince Henry turned westward, and made his way with great difficulty into Assam, the first European to do so by the most direct route, since the Indian Government prohibits English exploration in this region, for fear of political complications. The country was far wilder even than that of the Mekong valley. Seventeen distinct ranges of mountains were crossed in a distance of about 100 miles as the crow flies, one of the passes being 11,500 feet high. Roads, in the true sense, there were none. The party scrambled along declivities on hands and feet, climbing rocks by notched trunks of trees, crossing torrents by means of cane bridges "on which one hangs in a kind of hoop and propels one's self along with feet and hands." To these difficulties were added such scarcity of food that, for the last few weeks, it was a literal "flying from death" by starvation. Under these circumstances our author's remark is abundantly justified, that for the present this highroad from China to India "has small chance of becoming an artery of commerce."

The features of the country throughout nearly the whole journey were so similar—"always the same wooded mountains, with their deep valleys, at the bottom of which flow large torrents of deep blue water"—that there is naturally little variety in Prince Henry's narrative. The people seemed to differ only in their tribal names and languages. They exhibited the same generally repulsive characteristics, with the exception of such as had been under the influence of the French missionaries. The success of the expedition was due wholly to the aid given by native Christians, and especially by the interpreter Joseph, who knew no French, but conversed fluently in Latin. Little reference is made to the geographical results of the expedition, which were of some importance, mainly in the final settlement of the once vexed question of the sources of the Irawadi. The interest of the Prince was shown chiefly in collecting facts in regard to the language and literature of the people. He brought back a number of manuscripts as well as specimens of their folklore. In one of the stories, Brer Rabbit victimizes the fox and the bear by his cunning. In appendices are given vocabularies of thirty languages or dialects, copies of several manuscripts, together with lists of the natural-history collections and the geographical and route observations of the Prince's companion, Lieut. Roux.

The translation is fairly well done, though there are occasional marks of carelessness—for instance, in this sentence on page 267: "I believe a cataclysm would not shake him out of a casualty greater even than an American's." The illustrations, especially those of the natives and their houses, are generally well chosen and interesting. Of Prince Henry himself we may say that in this journey he encountered successfully dangers and obstacles of no ordinary kind, and that he showed much pluck and cheerful endurance of great hardships. He was also a good leader, patient with and careful of his followers. In a word, he has some of the essential qualities which go to make an explorer of the highest rank.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert, C. B. Reader for Seventh Grades. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Baker, Adella L. Famous Authors of America. Syracuse, N. Y.: G. A. Mosher. 50c.
Banister, Prof. H. C. Interludes. Seven Lectures. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Burchell, S. H. In the Days of King James. London: Gay & Bird.
Cambridge, Ada. Mater Familias. Appletons. $1.
Chetwode, R. D. John of Strathbourne. A Romance of the Days of Francis I. Appletons. $1.
Cust, R. N. Linguistic and Oriental Essays. 2 vols. London: Luzac & Co.
Dall, C. C. The Stone Giant. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Dana, Prof. J. D. Revised Text-Book of Geology. American Book Co.
Dodge, C. C., and Tuttle, H. A. Latin Prose Composition. American Book Co. 75c.
Essays, Mock-Essays, and Character Sketches. London: William Rice; New York: Whittaker.
Farrer, Lord. Studies in Currency. 1898. Macmillan. $4.
Goodrich, A. L. Topics on Greek History. For Use in Secondary Schools. Macmillan. 60c.
Grafigny, H. de. Industrial Electricity. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 75c.
Haddon, A. C. The Study of Man. London: Bliss, Sands & Co.; New York: Putnams. $2.
Harris, Mary D. Life in an Old English Town. [Social England Series.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Jacobs, Prof. H. E. Martin Luther. [Heroes of the Reformation.] Putnams. $1.50.
Julien, F. Un Peu de Tout. Oral and Conversational Method. W. R. Jenkins. 75c.
Kaufman, Emma, and O'Hagan, Anne. Cuba at a Glance. R. H. Russell.
Luzac's Oriental List. Vol. VIII. London: Luzac & Co.
Meekins, L. R. Some of Our People. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co. $1.
Montagu, Rear-Admiral V. A. A Middy's Recollections, 1853-1860. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Murray, D. A. An Elementary Course in the Integral Calculus. American Book Co. $2.
Noble, Prof. Charles. Studies in American Literature. Macmillan. $1.
Oman, Charles. A History of the Art of War. The Middle Ages. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Putnams. $4.
Pemberton, Max. Kronstadt: A Novel. Appletons. $1.50.
Pennington, Jeanne G. "Don't Worry" Nuggets. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Plummer, Mary W. Hints to Small Libraries. 2d ed. Truslove & Comba.
Rasius, C. E. Rechte und Pflichten der Kritik. Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann.
Rice, Emily J. Course of Study in History and Literature. Chicago: A. Flanagan. 75c.
Rice, Wallace, and Eastman, Barrett. Under the Stars, and Other Songs of the Sea. Chicago: Way & Williams.
Riley, J. W. Green Fields and Running Brooks. [Homestead Edition.] Scribners.
Sanderson, J. G. Cornell Stories. Scribners. $1.
Scidmore, Eliza R. Guide-Book to Alaska and the Northwest Coast. New edition, with a Chapter on the Klondike. Appletons.
Sorel, Albert. The Eastern Question in the Eighteenth Century. London: Methuen & Co.
Stories by Foreign Authors. German. Spanish. Scribners. Each 75c.
The Mason School Music Course. Book One. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Tout, Prof. T. F. The Empire and the Papacy. 918-1273. Period II. Macmillan.
Trumbull, Annie E. A Cape Cod Week. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Van Dyke, J. C. Nature for its Own Sake. Scribners. $1.50.
Vivaria, Kassandra. Via Lucis. A Novel. G. H. Richmond & Son. $1.50.
Walthew, G. W. The Philosophy of Government. Putnams. $1.25.
Wentworth, Prof. G. A., and Hill, Prof. G. A. A Text-Book of Physics. Boston: Ginn & Co.

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